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ABSTRACT

A compilation of five documents defines and explores the role, scope, reforms, and current trends in history teaching in Hungary. Ivan Berend in "Educational Ideas and History," considers whether or not the traditional uses of historical knowledge have become obsolete and examines the value of this knowledge in today's society. Peter Szebenyi describes past, present, and future trends in methods of instructing 10- to 14-year-old students in "Teaching History in Hungary." Changes since 1960 in the perspectives, focus, and purposes of instruction are investigated by Ervin Vladar in "The Scope and Situation of History Teaching in Hungary." Istvan Horanyi, in "History Teaching at Grammar-School: Debates and Views on the Modernization of History Teaching," considers Hungary's public education reform movement during the 1970s and its effects on the interpretation of historical data and school curricula. Facultative history education is defined by Ervin Vladar, in "About the Curriculum of the Facultative Education of History in Grammar-School," as an educational program that attempts to expand the historical knowledge and understanding of motivated and talented Hungarian elementary school students. Charts are included. (JHP)

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Iván T. Berend

EDUCATIONAL IDEALS AND HISTORY

Has the traditional role played by historical knowledge in education become obsolete? What is the value of historical knowledge concerning ancient times or for example, the industrial revolution? What can be done with this mass of dates, names and events? Will this information help us in understanding processes affecting the individual or society at the turn of the 20th and 21st centuries, or in the comprehension and solution of problems of the present and of the future? Does history really teach us how to live, can we really learn from it? Would it not be more expedient to provide more and better technical knowledge and skills? Shouldn't we aim at ensuring that the knowledge of "educated people" does not consist of accumulated fossils of "dead" knowledge? Is it not an anachronism in the last quarter of our century that the lack of historical knowledge is still considered as a serious weakness when even "educated persons" often "boast" that they do not understand the functioning of the electric bell and their mathematical knowledge does not go beyond the four arithmetical operations?

I shall not continue the enumeration of questions so often put during debates and conversations dealing with the topic. Those assertions, hidden in the form of questions, contest in 19th century educational ideals still present today. However strange this assertion may sound - just at the very beginning of an essay dealing with the role of the education of history -, these criticisms are totally justufied. But let me add immediately: they also are dangerously false, precisely due to their veracity.

Adherents to the old educational ideals or fanatics committed to the importance of history and historical knowledge are inclined to curl up like hedgehogs in the sometimes vehement debates which have lasted for years, and in the cross-

fire of conceptual arguments and practical education policy measures they continue self-sacrificing rear-guard fights to demonstrate the importance and the role of history education.

However, before obeying our defensive reflexes, we must carefully consider each argument and counter-argument and impartially analyze the subject-matter and methods of the history teaching we have inherited from the past.

If we do this, - examining text-books currently used at the same time - then the examining expert, striving for objectivity must admit that the questions quoted in the introduction cause a lot of justifiable anxieties. There are a lot of criticizable weaknesses. Precisely these weaknesses point towards the need to limit the role of history while formulating a new definition of the term "educated". And that is just where the mistake and falsity of this seemingly sophisticated argumentation comes in. That is why, in reality, there is no dialogue between the disputants. Both camps tell their respective monologue, not connecting and not reacting to the other. One of them build their argumentation upon the weaknesses of conventional history, while the other upon the importance of history teaching. The most extreme representatives of the former camp assign history a barely tolerated and a modest decorative role in the new educational ideal, while those of the latter, mostly detached and ignoring reality, regard history as at present it stands, as a firm permanent pillar of our educational structure.

Let us then face the facts: what has <u>really</u> become obsolete and what is <u>really</u> needed.

Conventional history teaching /significantly modified, in the past decades/ could not separate itself, in several regards, from its two-thousand-year-old traditions. The simple temporal description of events and occurrences, the classical "chronological" tradition of history dominates. At the same time, there is a tendency to romanticize history raking events out of context and giving them an unjustified significance often intended to throw light on issues of the present.

Historical writings and school history teaching have been regarded since Cicero as a chronicler events and as a result as a "schoolmaster" of life. Plutarch, Cicero and Tacitus have been the mines of practical philosophy and of moral truth through the centuries. From the end of the 18th century, influenced by romanticism, history became a national science, not merely and not primarily the teacher of a general practical philosophy and of the morals but the depositary and foundation of national values. Historical writings and history teaching have always been accompanied by an aversion to their weaknesses. Aristotle would find agreement today when saying: "Poetry is more philosophical and deeper than historiography since poetry tells us general truths while history tells us of individual cases." In educational debates many unconsciously vary O. Spengler's thought: "Nature is suited to scientific analysis, for history poetic inspiration is needed." Many follow - seriously or jokingly - Schopenhauer's old categorization, by comparing history to the "genuine sciences" which create systems and elaborate comprehensive notions and contrary to which "history offers the mere co-ordination of facts." Contrary to science - and this is again Schopenhauer's usage - history is merely knowledge, and if this is the case, then in an era that cheerfully designates itself as the era of the scientific technological revolution, the balance understandably swings in favour of science and "autotelic knowledge", and can be considered at best as "the science of events" - using the German W. Windelband's expression - and can merely be regarded as a decorative element in education which, at the very most, "is not harmful" or "is proper" to know.

The accomplishments and potential of historical science and of history teaching, however, have far excelled what was known when Cicero or Spengler lived. Historiography which, even two thousand years ago, had famous representatives whose works are acknowledged even today, and the science of history which is one of the oldest and very first scientific

branches of knowledge, really stepped on the road to becoming a science rather late, beginning in the 19th century. By linking history and logic, Hegel took the first step in searching for the relationship between legal and historical development. The science of history was able to follow the development of the natural sciences, since the regularity and the ascribability of individual laws to general laws was made possible by Marx. The introduction of the notion of socio-economic development and the resulting ascribing of development and structural phenomena of society to the relations of production made the subordination of the individual phenomena to general phenomenon possible, in order to show the significance of regularities. And it is precisely with this general framework that specific, individual events become important, since historiography must not stop at generalizing abstractions. In the same way as the exploration of lwas and generalizations can only be examined using genuine historical material, the exploration of the multiplicity of genuine processes is only possible starting from the abstract, and from the generals, permitting us to turn back once again to the concrete, that is if we judge the individual and the specific as well on the basis of recognized regularities.

In spite of all this and excellent historiographical achievements, historiography itself has achieved rather varied, or better to say mixed results. The approach and methods of the "pre-scientific" era of historiography still haunts us. Very often regularities are not examined /and their existence is often even disputed/, and they often want to avoid making judgements; that is they want to be nothing else than their chronicler predecessors. Others, to the contrary, adapt infinitely rich reality to fit a Procrustes' bed consisting of historical laws depriving the personality of his genuine historical role, and tracing the individual back to the general in such a way that the former practically dissolves in the latter. This process has its

origins in the dreary determinism of Herder and Fichte, rather than the determinism, based on Marx's approach to history, which united human freedom of action and choice and historical causal determinism. Naturally, it is difficult to show a historical process in such a way that freedom of action and inevitability do not seem to be opposites, but categories which merge into each other. Marx stated that "history is nothing else than the succession of individual generations, each of them exploiting materials, capital and productive forces created by its predecessors, so, on the one hand, it continues, under completely changed circumstances, the work of the previous generations and, on the other hand, it modifies the old circumstances with completely changed activities". Consequently, history is realized through the activity of man, determined and free at the same time.

Taken all the above into consideration, I think that the ascertion made some decades ago by Marc Bloch, the eminent French historian, remains valid: "history ... is a science ... that is wtill in its childhood ... history is very old in its embryonic narrative form, more fiction than fact and limited to the most directly comprehensible events for an even longer time. It is much younger as an analytic venture. Now it is trying to penetrate the superficial facts and, no longer tempted by legends and rhetoric, it is repudiating the dangerous drug of scholastic routine and of the empirism disguised as common sense."

Do not let us try to bury our heads in the sand and let us admit that in spite of much change, history has not kept pace with the most important achievements of historiography that, historically speaking, has only recently become a science. In the case of our subject, Fustel de Coulanges's truth still cannot entirely be applied: "History is not simply a collection of past events but the science of human societies". History is still not capable of what Dilthey expected of it: namely that man only achieves self-knowledge

through history. Much still has to be done if we are to reach that goal. We should radically break with 19th century traditions and principles and strive for drastic renewal.

However, while looking for the place of the history in our modern educational ideal, we must not, take the seemingly convenient view that history as a subject should simply be modernized and brought up to the standards of history as a science. The past hundred-years of development of the science of history and the process of it "becoming a science" was, at the same time, also a process in which the homogenous historical branch of knowledge became a mass of increasingly separate branches of science. It is well known that we are facing a process of differentiation manifest in all the sciences. And if earlier, school history almost exclusively remained within the framework of conventional political and military history, economic history has loosened that autocracy but it can hardly be regarded as sufficient a change. But that is not the real problem, so ensuring greater harmony and unity between these branches of historical knowledge is no genuine solution. This is so since the differentiation process occurred not only inside the science of history, but the formerly almost homogeneous domain of the human sciences has split into independent branches of science in the past two centuries. The sciences of literature and the arts became separate from history and the description and analysis of the different spheres of human activity are shouldered by sciences which have become increasingly independent. Horizontal analysis has split away from the vertical /historical/ study of social activities, and economics has become independent. Compte, Spencer and others in their criticism of traditional descriptive history created a new science: sociology, the science of the structure and organization of society.

However, all of the sciences dealing with society and man examine, even if from different starting points and with dif-

ferent methods, the same phenomenon, while concentrating on single details of a practically indivisible process. This separation has become increasingly wide and the difference has steadily deepened. Within the individual branches of science, this has inevitably led to one-sidedness and to the separation of inseparable phenomena and to weaknesses in the overall view and final results. It is directly as a result of this general situation in the sciences that efforts have been made to link and integrate these separate sciences as a new higher entity. This process of integration, however, has not led to the development of some new kind of honogeneous science of history. In reality no new science could be created to integrate the above mentioned sciences. The integration effort materialized not in one of the branches of the social sciences but in their entirity, leading to greater unity in their methodology and approach. Research works, investigating a subject, examining it from different angles and with different methods, directed at different partial domains, exercise mutual influence and show links in an increasing number of areas such as results, methodology and approach. In this present paper it would be unnecessary to mention how the basic approach of sociology has affected economics since the 1960's, what the importance of the interaction of history and economics was, in the theories of growth for example, or what kind of new impetus the history of art gave to cultural history and what links were found between demography, sociology and social history. It must be emphasized, however, that in this process of integration, each of the social sciences is unavoidably linked to history, since none of the sciences, and especially the social sciences, can be devoid of historicity. This integration of the social sciences should not lead to the creation of any kind of hierarchy. It is a case of reciprocity, interrelations and, if helpful, mutual subordination. Neither should we forget the fact that the different sciences dealing with the society can only treat their material of investigation historically,

since society and social detail investigated by them, as well as man are all part of the history. After all, only history can give an answer to the question: what is society and what is man. It should follow from what has been stated above, that it would be the greatest misunderstanding to identify history with historical science. But that is not true. This is a case of the social sciences asserting the organizing principle of historicity.

Consequently, history as a school subject will only fit into our new educational ideal, if as a science covering the most significant results of the social sciences, it also embraces historical totality. And this is impossible without basing history on the integration of the social sciences. This integration however is only possible if the information we gain about man and society is organised historically; that is, it should remain fundamentally a historical study.

And now, let us reformulate the question put in the introduction: has the conventional role of history become obsolete in the training of an "educated person"? We must make a clear distinction between two different answers. Conventional school history is obsolete and will not form part of our future educational ideal. On the other hand, a renewed school history, dealing with society and man, including the concept of historical totality, based on the integration of the social sciences, will lead to the strengthening of the role of historical study in the training of the educated.

Consequently, there is a need for a profound transformation of the subject matter, theoretical framework and methods of history, or better to say, of the history/social science subject. The most significant results of the different branches of historical science, as well as those of economics, demography, sociology, ethnography, the history of technology and science, the history of ideology and religion and of archeology should also be integrated. In doing this the subject not only becomes more honogeneous in the sense that it covers the history of human society in incomparably

greater unity, but it also becomes capable of illustrating close historical interrelations between seemingly separate processes, and it also becomes possible to include indispensable material from the social sciences partly or entirely missing from public education at present. This would remove the danger of history simply becoming a more or less dead and useless decorative element. The new subject may offer, by the historical examination of the entirety of social processes, foundation in the social sciences giving the necessary basic analytic skills for understanding the complicated processes in society and the interrelations between the economy and society, culture and science, politics and ideology that, for the contemporary viewer, often appear incomprehensible and confusing when separated from their respective historical background.

When we talk about the need for the still non-existent social science teaching as an indispensable element in our modern educational ideal, we must add that the idea of direct social usefulness should be brought to the fore in the creation of this new type of subject. This is a dangerous idea - the reader may think -, if it is recalled how many times a historical image based on a whole thesaurus of examples has been misused or how even the best ideals have been compromised, leading to the garbling of history. Consequently, when talking about practical usefulness, I do not mean the creation of historical myths. Looking for examples in the past of efforts, bearing some similarity to present efforts is not useful. Nor is illustrating history as a process that confirms socio-political efforts formulated in a given period. I talk about usefulness in the gentler, in the Baconist sense of the word, when he advices us to know not for the sake of knowledge but to become able to act. And likewise according to his formulation, each science must be traced back to its usefulness and the action it encourages. It is true that Bacon was merely referring to the natural sciences. The old meditative ideal of knowledge Aristotle

expressed, has accompanied historical science right up to modern times. Knowledge aimed at action and usefulness was first formulated as a task of the social sciences by Marx in his famous Feuerbach thesis when, adapting the best traditions and practice of the natural sciences, he declared that the tasks is not merely to explain the world but to change it. Those living around the year 2000 will require an incomparably wider knowledge of the social sciences, a historical understanding of social phenomena making him able to plan the economy and society, production and life styles, housing estates and leisure time well. Our examination of the economy, of the sciences, and of society, in brief, that of historical development should indicate the processes extending to the present and, through it, pointing towards the future. History must not be separated from the present but, just the opposite, its most important objective is to locate the present within the processes of history. The past and the present do not merely constitute an interrelating process in which the present is an instantaneously passing point in time marking the border between future and past. The present and the past are starting points for each other's mutual understanding. The extension of the past examined up to the living present follows naturally from this perception of the present. But the grasping of the living present in the past is likewise indispensable. Despite the specific methodological difficulties related to research dealing with our times and the traps often endangering its scientific character, the detailed presentation of the function of the present in the historical process is indispensable. In addition to the threads of historical process leading to the present, the integrated social sciences and in this case particularly economic sciences as well as sociology and jurisprudence play a special role in the creation of a well-established, historical view of the present.

School history, therefore, should not stop with what is already considered as "history" but it should break, also

in its methodology, with considering history in small, isolated chronological periods, in favour of a new type of methodology which places the emphasis on tracing longer historical processes, strengthening the pupils' concept of historicity. Only the review of longer processes can ensure the development of a "feel" for history in addition to knowledge of history and historical facts.

Reference should also be made to two newer requirements in the areas of subject matter and methodology. The educational model necessary nowadays must not be based on the romantic approach of the 19th century. In creating our approach to history national and world history should present an incomparably more organic and more realistic system of relations. The expansion of the world, the reduction in travelling times, the fact that the effects of the events occurring in "remote" continents will effect us directly each of these are considered banal truths. Consequently, in addition to the totality of history embracing social and human development processes, the demand for spatial and geographical totality is also elementary. For the comprehension of modern phenomena, we should be aware of the spatial interrelations determining historical development. The relation between the developed and underdeveloped countries in the 16th to 18th centuries, then even more in the 19th and 20th centuries, cannot be considered as a difference in their stage of development in which the developed and underdeveloped countries respectively stand on higher and lower steps of a staircase leading upstairs. What is more, the development of individual peoples and countries is not linear at all, not the kind in which some abstract truth represents the general regularity of the development of a society, but nevertheless the alternation of the different social forms seen in historical perspective, show the fundamental stages of development. Reality is characterized by coexistence and the linkage of the most varied levels and forms of development. It is in the interest of the concrete

demonstration of historical progress, to demonstrate that while humanity, in its entirety, shows a definite course of development during its history, that does not mean that every country follows a "linear course of development", with each advance representing the mounting of a new step in the staircase of development. Moreover, the development of humanity shows extraordinary inequalities, including constant shifts /ancient Hellenic, medieval continental, modern English, recent American, and Soviet history/. All this requires a uniform review of longer historical periods. The strict upholding of chronological methodology is not always wise, since it it much more meaningful to examine equivalent periods in the history of different countries, examining their main characteristics and development, as well as regional differences. This process of transferring our knowledge of different distinct periods to new geographical regions increases our powers of comprehension and sense of history, offering more opportunities for comparison. At the same time, this method ensures that we approach history from an economic point of view and provides us with a basic understanding of economics, particularly the theories of growth.

There is clearly a place in the education of the newer generations, for all this, demanding familiarity with historical synchronities. Additionally, it is important that they understand that the development of each people or nation is only interpretable in terms of universal interrelations. The situation in individual countries in the Southern, South-eastern or Eastern Europe and their specific links with the countries of North-Western Europe, or rather the joint development of these territories and the contradictory development of countries which are so close to one another is only comprehensible if we see them as parts of a historical system. The same is true of the historical relations of the developed centers of Europe with the greatest regions of Asia, Latin America or Africa.

Precisely for this reason, a synchronic review should be assured at each point in the subject-matter complementing the chronological approach. In dealing with each great historical period, one should proceed from a comprehensive picture of the world as it was then - to ensure "historical totality" in a regional sense too - and on that basis one can deal with the forms representing classical development and with the specific, individual forms coexisting at that time. In teaching, it should be made clear that the progress of human society produces, in addition to the predominance of the general tendency of the development, a great variety of particularities which are quantitatively in the majority. Those particularities can be grouped - with the aid of certain generalizations and abstractions - into regional types /for example the particularities of Central-East-European development or Latin American development. Within that, however, the history of each individual country also reflects a great number of individual characteristics. On the basis of this comparison, historical study should demonstrate that along with the forms representing the main course of development there also co-exist societies at different levels of development or societies representing different forms. It should become clear in connection with this that there are also social forms that "stagnate" in the long run, and that stagnation, development and decline are not only phenomena that successively link in time but they co-exist in space as well.

All this demands significant innovation in methodology and approach, since present-day school history cannot offer this approach, even if more material is added. The whole handling of history should be changed, ensuring that we consider history in terms of systems. Naturally, that is not primarily a pedagogical demand but part of the demand for historicity.

As a matter of fact, we really can understand the processes taking place in the society not only in their interrela-

tions but in the unity of their universal connections. Modern transformation and development, although late in certain countries, can be explained not simply and exclusively in terms of their internal connections but their universal connections as well and, by taking into account the influences bringing about change such as quantifiable and sometimes quantitatively measurable stimulation from the outside world. The sudden advance of a handful of West-European countries, using present terminology developed countries which rose in importance between the 16th and 18th centuries would be inexplicable without their place in the nascent world economy, without their role played in the evolving division of labour, without the institutionalization of their increasing dominance through colonialism and in the same way the stagnation and increasing relative backwardness of the countries which fell on the periphery of Europe and of the world would not be interpretable in themselves, without their respective place occupied in the world system.

Naturally, neither the newer rearrangements, nor failures which occurred during the development of the capitalist world economy in the 19th century could be explained without the system approach. And it is precisely within the framework of the transformation of the world system, starting after the socialist revolution and spectacularly accelerated after World War II, that we can approach the ways leading to the present and out of the present.

Comparison is an indispensable part of this methodology. Naturally, comparative methodology is not only employed in the science of history, it is essential in almost all study. Nevertheless, there is something specific about historical comparison. Namely that it is the only possibility for mankind to try to solve the enigma of the alternatives hidden in the depth of its past and to understand better its present options.

History - similarly to historical science - can only undertake the description and analysis of complete historical processes. This, however, contradicts real historical situations, since alternatives are hidden within them. Among them, historical science can only examine the single realized process. Although the consideration of alternatives is a natural part of examination, the question considered taboo is "what would have happened if". It is obvious that serious historical research must not step on the slippery road of unjustifiable hypotheses. Unconsciously, however, on the basis of the method presently used in the widest circles, both in research work and during almost every history lesson, a great number of such questions are hidden and are even answered. For half a century, it was taught that the customs union of the customs areas of the Austro-Hungarian Monarchy was disadvantageous to Hungary because it allowed developed Austro-Czech industry to compete on the Hungarian market. Behind this seemingly simple statement, however, there hides the unformulated question what would have happened if there had been no customs union? And a self-confident answer is also hidden, that Austro-Czech competition would not have been so significant, which would have been beneficial to the Hungarian economy. Yet, that answer was formulated without adequate examination. A whole series of other similar questions are to be found, the answers to which are based on assumptions and prejudices, without adequate scolarly examination. Nevertheless, if we do not put the question "what would have happened if" but, nevertheless, answer them, we receive even worse answers.

The problem seems to be insoluable. The development of society and the scientific character of historical examination, however, demand an approximate solution. And precisely this, is made possible by the comparative method, since the analysis of a given phenomenon can be approached through numerous historical examples. Taking the former example, if we consider the effect of customs unions, we should not merely consider it within the framework of the Austro-Hungarian

Monarchy but also the customs policy of other European countries. Interesting anomalies can be found. During the 19th century, Denmark and Sweden removed all trade barriers but, in spite of this /or perhaps because of it/ they were isolated from the industrialized countries in the decades leading up to World War I. Portugal similarly had no trade barriers, yet nevertheless suffered a very serious recession. Spain, that was at a similar level of economic development, resorted to trade barriers but, nevertheless, suffered fate similar to that of Portugal, that of relative decline. Consequently, the simple linking together and analytical examination of different cases throws new light on the phenomenon formerly examined by itself. In this case it becomes obvious that the results of economic development do not simply depend on the existence or lack of trade restrictions. This comparative method makes, in a certain sense, a type of "experimenting" methodology possible in the case of history, since we can trace the success and the effect of the same phenomenon in different situations.

All this makes it possible to create historical types, and to distinguish clearly between the general, specific and individual.

Thus, this social science based on the historic organizing principle, renewed in its subject matter and methods, offers us thorough knowledge of the present, deriving from integrated social science studies, including historical, social, economic, institutional /legal/ and technological information, providing us with a consistent comparative method, and a subject that could well become a real supporting-pillar of a modern educational ideal.

This subject would provide social guidance to younger generations. Aided by historicity and comparative analysis, and with an understanding of the interrelations of social processes, along with a system of historical, economic, sociological and other social science knowledge, one can establish

a scientific social world concept, world view and social action. The subject could promote a new notion of nationhood of rational patriotism, of the inheritence of peoples and nations, and the creation of their natural scale of values. At the same time, the social sciences constitute an important basis for the development of a broad personality, for the achievement of higher cultural and educational standards, for realistic careers choice, for the rational utilization of leisure time, and for the creation of a suitable way of life.

Among our new educational requirements, training in the social sciences is not an "autotelic" ornament at all and is not the luxury and privilege of the "educated person" anymore. Even if the social sciences sometimes lack precision they nevertheless have direct economic interrelations and consequences.

The economic thinking of our days, having got beyond mere theories of growth - using Károly Polányi's terminology; the "formal" interpretation of the economy, in which the development of the economy appeared to be merely a chain of economic acts is rediscovering the "substantive" meaning of the economy that regards the economy as an institutionalized process based on interaction between man and nature.

Economic versatility and our ability to adapt to new circumstances and possibilities depends - on the way in which history is taught precisely on the "human factor". One precondition of flexibility is social mobility. I hardly need mention its class background or its implications concerning settlement structure. Let me mention, however, its connection to education and professional training. One of the preconditions for flexible economic response, and for bringing about changes in different branches of industry and in product profile is a high general level of education, allowing greater mobility between professions./The success of the educational systems of the Scandinavian countries, preceded even the educational results of the developed West-European countries,

and was an important factor in their extraordinary flexibility in the 19th century. The same can be said of Japan as well, the educational system of which, in spite of its relative economic backwardness, has always been - in the 1860's at the turn of the century and at present - at a level similar to the economically most developed countries. It is evident that the degree of the flexibility of the Japanese economy and its extraordinary "ability to follow" could hardly be understood without that./

General educational standards, and within it the perception and comprehension of the new demands created by the economy, is an indispensable precondition for the flexible economic response of a given country, being in many ways more significant than numerous direct government training programmes.

The social sciences provide basic knowledge essential if the masses are to participate in everyday decision making, if we are to achieve industrial democracy and encourage the population to participate in effective social decision making.

When we say that the social sciences will become a productive force in our epoch, that is not merely a prediction but is based on historical experience. The conscious planning of the economy, along with all the improvements that have made to it demonstrate this. It would be a great mistake to think, however, that all this applies only to one or other branch of the social sciences - economic science or law. An economic decision has dozens of social implications, and a measure that is economically good may turn out to be socially disastrous. This can only be avoided or reduced through thoroughly analyzing the sociological and philosophical implications of social and political decisions, and correctly assessing the significance of historical processes and, last but not least, by considering their socio-psychological effects. Therefore, if we state that the social science has become a productive force, we do not merely mean economic policies, the organization of industry or well-planned legis-

lation, nor one or other branch of the social sciences, but the entirety, and only the entirety of the social sciences.

G. Myrdal's ascertion is extremely pertinent and true when he says, "The integrated and planned society of the present, and that of the future even more so will not only demand the collaboration of social scientists in planning but also base the social sciences on empiric observation of social processes, and it will more intensively compel those scientists to analyze social conditions.

Confronting practical tasks, co-operating with other scientists and the continuous surpassing of the old limits will provide all of us with new ideas. We shall be compelled to combine the partial and the whole and to make scientific thought profitable in the whole domain".

It is expected that profitable use be made of the social sciences in solving practical tasks. Repeating the words of our former author: while the medical sciences had already produced the therapy and the natural sciences the technology "none of the social sciences had become therapeutic... nor had they developed into technology... But now, when this demand is being put all over the world ... the social sciences... are obliged to create "therapies" and "technology".

The creation of a team of researchers is not enough to create this new educational ideal, it must serve and be established by our entire educational system aided by this new history/social science subject.

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Péter Szebenyi

TEACHING HISTORY IN HUNGARY
/Past - present - future/

This study is designed to give interested foreign professionals a picture of how history is taught to 10 to 14 year-old students. However the present can only be rooted in the past and many modern-day problems must wait to be solved in the future. This must also be the case in a given subject-area, where the past, present and future likewise constitute an organic unity. Let us begin with the past and outline the story of how history in Hungary.

1. The past

In Hungary, history was originally taught in the 17th century as a separate subject in school. Comenius, professor at the Reformed College of Sárospatak between 1650 and 1654, wrote the following in his draft curriculum:

"Since learning history is highly pleasing to the senses, stimulates the imagination, ornaments erudition, enriches language, sharpens opinions about all sorts of matters and imperceptibly develops the intellect... we intend it to be a concomitant of the essential subjects through all grades".[1/]

Although Comenius enumerated nearly all aspects of the formative role played by teaching history, the natural development of our subject as it was accompanied by certain social and political changes determined which of the functions would assume prominence over the next three centuries.

History as a catalogue of moral examples

In the country where national survival and very existence had constantly been menaced since the 15th century, and where "blood shed for a homeland" divided /between "two pagans" between the Turkish and Hapsburg Empires/, the objective of

history teaching had naturally been to "proclaim weapon and hero", to hold up leading figures from the heroic struggle as examples for the young.

After the struggles for independence between the 16th and 18th centuries, the enlightened Hapsburg rule also wanted to use history teaching as a catalogue of moral examplex, but was somewhat less enthusiastic in its approach. In the words of the first state curriculum - the Ratio Edicationis - issued by Maria Theresa in 1777:

"Is the history of the country so poor that it would be scant of examples inciting youth to be loyal to the reigning prince, to be patriotic and exhibit other virtues worthy of the good citizen and subject?"[2/]

"Country and progress"

Ever since the early 19th century, ideas and inventions resulting from technological and political changes were also beginning to spread throughout Hungary. The "reform period" began in the 1920's and was distinguished by the shibboleths "country and progress".

The spirit of evolutionism also pervaded the teaching of history. It is worthwhile to note how enthusiastic one of the professors at the College of Marosvásárhely was when in 1983, discussing the usefulness of history teaching, he said of human perfection:

"Man who once scrounged like wild animals in the forest and who felt his desires fulfilled by eating a piece of fruit, now constructs flying bridges, over the seas maintaining the desired direction for thousands of miles, penetrates the watery depths in a diving bell, mounts the skies in an air balloon, sets limits to the thunderbolts, clearly explains the phenomena of nature, shows suitable direction in thinking, leads argumentation into the safe haven of refuge, measures the orbits of heavenly bodies which roll through great space, and thus he is the master of all perceptible

nature. This was the way man developed over a great period of time and rose higher a d higher on the ladder of perfection."[3/]

History teaching in the reform period was characterized by unflinching faith in human progress, adherence to Hegelian philosophy, and its display of ardent patriotism.

Cultural History

The suppression of the 1848-1849 war of independence and ensuing political tyranny of the Hapsburgs had not put a stop to the national economic development. The revolution emancipated the serfs, which finally met with royal sanction in 1855. In 1867 the two nations agreed to a compromise which resulted in the Austro-Hungarian monarchy, initiating what is unquestionably one of the most dynamic phases in the development of Hungary.

In the midst of rapid advances in agriculture, transportation, industry and commerce, writers of the curriculum also directed their attention toward cultural history in the broader sense of the word. The state draft curriculum of 1873 read as follows:

"With regard to the teaching of history, it has been accepted as a main principle that because of the excellent influence of other nations primarily on the development of our own nation and on the development of modern culture in general, discussions of their hostiries should be centered around the history of the culture of our own nation for purposes of enlightenment."[4/]

In this age of dual political administration the majority of history textbooks and demonstrative aids /wall-maps, atlases, picture series, plaster-casts, diapositives, school-museums/ nad become more readily available, reinforcing historicultural approach to education. Introducing better teaching aid in the classroom went hand-in-hand with using new methods that made students work and think independently.

The historicultural approach, however, was never widely adopted, in spite of state support. Since the country had not won complete independence Hungary was part of the monarch/, jingoistic history lectures where the past was considered a catalogue of exemplary conduct continued to enjoy strong support.

Adherents of the historicultural and nationalist schools frequently fought spectacular battles with each other in the press, during pedagogical congresses and even in Parliament. And as Europe drew closer to World War I, the positions of the nationalist wing, won increasing support; the same nationalistic spirit pervaded the state documents. Although radical bourgeois and socialist opposition groups were in the minority, they were prepared to wage the revolutions of 1918 and of 1919. In only a couple of months they worked out coherent programmes that revolutionized the history teaching.

"Baroque conservatism"

The counter-revolutionary order following the revolution was characterized to a greater or lesser extent by "Baroque conservatism". The swing in ideology signalled which serves as the content of history teaching the victory of conventional and detailed policy history and a preference in teaching methods for high-flown explanations, which all upheld the revision - the historical continuity - of the Peace Treaty of Trianon concerning the Hungarian borders. The Curricular Directive of 1927 for secondary schools adequately characterises the spirit of the period.

"The fact that history teaching - by virtue of itself and in all its dimensions even when it deals with world history assists - in transmitting and developing an appreciation for moral conventions and the inherited great values of the nation makes it of outstanding importance among all the other subject in secondary school. While studying history the student is united in spirit with his nation and feels his life is part of the nation's life. Consequently need to pay tribute to the

past develops, inspiring ardent devotion to the present and unflinching faith in the future of the nation. Only that history teacher, who really performs his duty is always mindful of the fact, that his work affects young, perceptive minds and plays an important role in preserving the stored brain-power of the nation and insuring historical continuity."[5/]

During the late 1930's - in what must have been pedagogical a bodiment of the self-fascization of the country - a broad-based campaign was launched against "exaggerated intellectualism" in education. Instead of objectively analyzing the historical facts official "directives" encouraged teachers to give stirring addresses:

"The history teacher should be endowed with the power of persuasion so that his knowledge and ardent Hungarian spirit will arouse the interest of the student entrusted to him and encourage them to become enthusiastic fighters for national thought. Enthusiastic, uncompromising, open-minded apostles are needed for history teaching in the secondary schools, especially in these hard times."[6/]

People's democracy

Once the democratic educational administration assumed authority after World War II, the irrationality of the previous era was staunchly opposed. The entire Directive on subjects issued for the 1945/1946 school-year was practically an antithesis of history teaching objectives set down by the counter-revolutionary order. As opposed to the tenor of the secondary school curriculum in 1938, the Directive of 1945 adopted the development of historical analysis, proper evaluation and a rational "political sense" as the main objectives of history teaching. Consequently instructed the teachers to pay close attention to the scientific content of the subject-matter consisting of elements drawn from economic, social, political and intellectual spheres. It also instructed teachers to identify rooted in the past and to clarify historical notions rather than to isolate the psychical effects of history teaching.

The Directive also incorporated the new democratic development in its discussion of education: "The teacher of history should never forget that the real power behind the state has always consisted of the work of untold millions, beginning with the Egyptian builders of pyramids, extending through the the time of the ancient slaves and the modern proletariat. We must not only emphasize the administrative activities of the leadership but also the creative work of those great masses. Let us elevate them in our discussion and look for a way to stress their importance to a greater extent than it is at present."[7/]

By the end of the 1940's rapid political transformations increasingly confined the teaching of history to everyday policy. Unhistorical comparisons between past and present were customary during history lessons, and the personality cult around Mátyás Rákosi also made itself felt in the schoolbooks.

Dogmatism and phrase-mongering

In the early 1950's the teaching of history was pervaded by dogmatism and phrase-mongering. Historical events taught in the schools often served as political testimonials illustrating certai n Marxist theorems, and instead of making genuine historical connections teasers used slogans. Since history teaching was chained to everyday policy, frequent changes in political climate during the 1950's fragmented it. It may have been brought to book for patriotism on one occasion accused of exaggerated nationalism on another criticized for burdening students with too much data or charged with not corroborating generalizations with suficient facts. History teaching was subject to the vicissitudes of policy like a ship tossed between Scylla and Charbydis until the late 1950's, when realistic strategy for history teaching could be elaborated into the transition period which would give a comprehensive picture of reality /.../ give a comprehensive picture of reality and which would take into account the students' level of development and needs.

Precisely because "characteristics of age-groups" were beginning to be implemented during that period, new curricula and methodological guidelines prepared for the different age-groups varied significantly according to group. Consequently - as we have already indicated in the introduction to this study - we narrow down our subject to the programmes issued for public elementary school students between the ages of 10 to 14.

The 1962 history curriculum in public elementary schools

In 1960 when work began to reform education curriculum-makers proceeded from the assumption that history teaching had not lived up to its role and function in the education system. In consequence it was necessary to develop a new "concept of the subject" and methodology.

After formulating this concept, work on the public elementary school curricula was almost entirely channelled in a practical direction toward researching a new methodological structure for teaching history.

The methodology was improved so that history teaching in public elementary school would be "readable". This was accomplished by making it "a chain of episodical readings built on an organic didactical framework" in the 5th grade so that group studying of the subject-matter could be made to play a greater role in the higher grades as well. During the experiment which extended to all ten public elementary schools, "certain parts of the subject-matter were read by the group - the teacher or one of the students read it out loud, the others followed it in their textbooks, and then they immediately discussed the part under study."[8/] The Guide-book prepared for 8th grade teachers experimenting with this technique advised: "The students should get acquainted with the historical facts ad independently as possible. They are free to do this in the readings. Representing historical phenomena is not simply the task of the teacher: the students themselves should get acquainted with them. They are helped not only by reading their schoolbooks but also by the notes in these books

by the "junior historical encyclopaedia", by the "dictionary", by the "calendar". The teacher helps the students to get acquainted only with the more complicated facts."[9/]

After the completed draft curriculum had been widely debated, the commission for history curriculum reform in the public elementary school rejected in part and significantly modified this didactical structure. It rejected the episodical teaching of history, saying that history and not historical readings should be taught from beginning to end, and modified the textbook-oriented approach of the original plan in other regards as well. Finally, the commission determined the notion of readability as follows: "Historical events, phenomena relationships, generalizations and morals should be eluciated without deviating from historical fidelity and truth; they should be made eventful, narrative, descriptive, expressive, captivating while stimulating sense and understanding. These requirements should be varied according to grade. From beginning to end, however, history should be taught, so that teaching methods are adapted to the children's ages."[10/]

One final and significant achievement of the 1963 elementary school curriculum was that it resulted in methodology renewal and brought history as a subject taught in the schools closer to the interests of children, at the same time adapting it more closely to historical reality. This achievement was reflected in the textbooks in several ways:

- they essentially incorporated contemporary approaches in historical science;
- questions and tests which were part of the teaching units helped to develop ability to handle the subject, and improve their thinking and ability to concentrate within this subject as well as in the other disciplines;
- the majority of the textbook illustrations, didactical drawings, maps, charts, diagrams and reproductions constituted organic parts of a given subject-matter, that is, they did not simply play an external illustrational role, but fulfilled essential methodological tasks;

- as a consequence of their novel methodological apparatus they could become working tools not only when students learned at home but during lessons as well;

- the schoolbooks and other educational tools were adequately coordinated, complemented each other, and constituted an organic didactical unity. The mid-60's paved the way for numerous new educational tools and procedures. Schools how adopted the wide-scale use of colour-films, diapositives, script projection foils, application sets, outline wall-maps, time-strips, record-players, and tape-recorders, and it was at this time that School Television began the telecast programmes. An illustrated historical atlas was prepared for public elementary school students and several volumes were also published in a series, the Illustrated History. History class field-trips lessons in museums, and teamwork were widely adopted, and special lecture-rooms for history lessons were planned as well.

The "methodological revolution" was a spectacular success. In 1968, every ten years made it evident that students' levels had improved to a very great extent. /In 1958, the students scored 22 percent while in 1968 they raised their scores percent./

The "methodological revolution" in public elementary school history teaching had visible result. At approximately the same time we also conducted a representative conceptual assessment which included 7,710 students in the 10- to 11-, 13- to 14- and 17- to 18-year old age-groups.

The average score of students by grade

Grade		Students' age	average score	Number of students participating in the the assessment
Public elementary school	5th	10 to 11	38	2,617
	8th	13 to 14	60	2,692
Secondary school 4th grade		17 to 18	90	2,401

If we take into account that, compared to the public elementary school, some form of selected "children's material" is used in the 4th grades at the secondary schools and, in addition there is a three-year difference between the 5th and 8th grades and a four-year difference between the 8th and secondary school 4th grade, we can evaluate the development of historical and conceptual thinking of the public elementary school students as having made positive achievements.

Students also developed a greater appreciation for history. A partial assessment of the international IEA study 11 revealed that students ranked history among their favourite theoretical subjects.

Age	10-year-old	14-year-old
How history was ranked as a subject	3rd from 12 subjects	3rd from 13 subjects
Number of students asked		

So much for the achievements. Now let us turn to the most brief discussion of the most obvious shortcomings apparent from the assessments. If we divide the questions on the history assessments into two groups, separating the tests that postulate /I./, reproduction and /II./, comprehension, independent thinking as well as application of this knowledge at any level, the achievements of students in the domains of question types and II. respectively were divided sharply down the line. Percentage data for the 1970 assessment may be considered characteristic: type I. 72 percent, type II. 38 percent, the average achievement of students was 55 percent. We meet similar ratios in other assessments as well.

Thus, at the outset assessment results indicated that the content and methods of history teaching in the public elementary school have to be further refined a process which will require additional inquiry and experiments. But this is a subject that more properly belongs to a discussion of the present system in our public elementary schools.

2. The present

The preparation of the 1978 history curriculum in public elementary schools

Along with the introduction of the curriculum of 1963, work had already begun on a new curriculum during the late 1960's. We can distinguish four stages in that work.

In the first stage, it was necessary to determine what direction the new curriculum would take for its development, that is the "prehistory" of the curriculum had to be elucidated. A scientific approach to any given problem demands that previous results be known. In this sense, the historical past is an indispensable in all sciences. The previous history curricula which strave to develop a historical approach was marred by an especially flagrant contradiction - the preparation had not attempted to survey history-teaching's past

in some sort of briader perspective. The actual writing of the curriculum could not even be started without evaluating the antecedents, the thoughts and experiences accumulated through c nturies. In addition to the examination of curricula and schoolbooks, the research also examined characteristic procedures and tools used in the teaching practice. Thus, it became possible to apprehend how established practices which had accumulated during the course of history teaching along with procedures and tools which helped to implement these practices had evolved and been organized.

In the second stage of researching the curriculum, experts had to discover how actual implementation of the generalized tasks and methodological principals was influenced and modified by the concrete level of student development. Consequently, we intended to determine what kinds of special tasks confront us, for example, in the 5th grade, and what others are presented in the 8th grade. Since - in our judgement - the differences in the respective levels of student development are primarily manifested in how they perceive historical concepts and relationships and on which level these perceptions are applied, we concentrated on examining the students' historical conceptualization.

In the third stage of curriculum preparation we began by compiling experimental requirement systems /taxonomies/, we issued exercise-books and tests measuring the results and gave them to 30 experimental classes.

The requirement system was divided into two main parts: systemized attainments and the systemized objectives. The systemized relationships we expected students to acquire; included the standard questions and tasks we used to outline the ways and methods the students' historical approach, independent thinking and communication skills would be developed.

Compiling the systemized objectives proved to be especially difficult. Since objectives grouped according to different perspectives should, on the one hand, be related to a concrete

system built up methodically within a given group, and since a given objective could also be assigned to several groups at the same time /for example its solution could simultaneously help to develop a historical approach, independent thinking and communication sills/, the selection and systematization of the objectives required very complicated and meticulous work. Therefore, one of the most important tasks of our experiment was to plan and implement a realistic, well-functioning, "multi-dimensional" system of objectives.

The role of the exercise-book /and also its content and form/, the other fundamental tool in the experiment, differed from conventional exercise-books in many respects. Its main purpose was not to replace the sketches on the blackboard or to practice what was already learned, but to "program" the sophisticated conduct of the lesson.

Accordingly, the exercise-book prompted the use of several other tools /for instance, the use of schoolbooks, manuals, reading books, source selections, maps, the time strip, the application set, diapositives/; in addition, it promoted various types of diversified individual - and team-work while facilitating thematic summaries and repetitions.

Thematic tests played an important role in the experiment. They not only assured ongoing measurement and recording of the experiment results, but because of their internal structure and variety of forms, they also oriented teachers and the students in the direction of sophisticated teaching and learning of history, since the tests were also compiled on the basis of predetermine viewpoints.

Accordingly, after each topic had been concluded, the teacher could see what kinds of results were obtained by the students in solving the various problems and, taking this feedback into account; he could improve and develop his/her own pedagogical activity.

The experimental classes had been designated by counties, county towns and the capital according to prior sampling of

opinions. In selecting the experimental classes, we tried to assure a random-sampling of the whole country.

As a result of experimenting with the requirements system, exercise-book and tests, the new curriculum could be prepared on the basis of concrete measurements and pedagogical experience.

Draft curriculum - hypothetical curriculum

The June 1972 decision of the Central Committee of the Hungarian Socialist Workers' Party on education policy declared that:

"Once present experiments in the modernization of the curcirulum have been concluded, the subject-matter in elementary and secondary education should gradually be modified or replaced with a new one during the late 1970's."

According to the Directives of the Chief Committee on Curriculum, between October and December of 1974 we prepared the draft curriculum and, after its discussion and revision, wrote a hypothetical curriculum which we opened up to debate.

As far as the criticisms are concerned:

- 3 of them condemned the overall curriculum /4 percent of the criticisms/,
- 21 of them gave exclusively positive opinions /26 percent/,
- 51 of them agreed with the basic curriculum, but made critical remarks or amendments /70 percent/.

Once the results of the social discussion and the opinion of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences had been taken into account, the new curriculum assumed its final shape on the 30th of June, 1976.

The new curricular concept

In the new education plan for public elementary school, the name of the subject had changed. The title "History" had been replaced by "History and Civics". The new designation suggests

that our subject form the very beginning should methodically aim at the civic education of students.

The special objective of civics, separately summarized in the second semester of the 8th grade, was formulated by the curriculum as follows:

"A survey of economic life, society, culture, domestic and foreign policy, the most important achievements and difficulties of our state, and of the social, economical and cultural tasks before us give students elementary civic, economic, administrational, legal and ethical knowledge that is indispensable for the later assertion of their civic rights and duties. The purpose of teaching a separate civics course is not merely to provide information, but to give a civic education: to instill the socialist public spirit and adequate behaviour, to prepare the next generation for conscious social participation."[15/]

Subject-matter in the Curriculum

Subject-matter is characterized mainly by the following new features:

1. The curriculum tries to make basic subject-matter correspond to the primacy of educational aims and the requirement of workability by drawing a more detailed and thematical picture of the major path that humankind took in its historical development than former curricula did, while emphasizing the main characteristics, points of junction and typical phenomena.

At the same time, when the curriculum positively reduces world history subject-matter so that it may be included in the basic subject-matter, that is, may be memorized, it incorporates new elements in the supplementary subject-matter which both instruct and help to build concepts.

a/ The curriculum attempts to make manifestly apparent that besides the traditionally studied paths aims the main line of

historical development there also existed other paths within the main trend, parallel with or crossing it.

b/ The curriculum concentrates an education, concept-building and also corresponds to rightful social and scientific demands draws in order to draw a more detailed and coherent picture of the history of surrounding nations than the former one.

2. The curriculum tries to condense the basic subject-matter in world history as well as national history and, at the same time, bring it closer to the 10 to 14 year-old children in theme.

At the same time in order to build concepts the curriculum contains new elements which serve as supplementary subject-matter.

a/ Mention should first be made of the fact that prehistory and the history of the nationality question are given more manifest exposure.

b/ The curriculum expands the scope of local history as well. It not only envisages an increase in the number of lessons devoted to that purpose but also prescribes some compulsory topics in local history as basic subject-matter.

3. The concrete development of policy in the national history is embedded in the overall evolution of society in world history.

This means that world history - contrary to the former curricular approach - is included in the basic subject-matter up to the 8th grade mainly as social history and not as policy history. This greatly facilitates its presentation and mastery. World history events used during the orientation are mainly included in the supplementary subject-matter.

4. Although the curriculum expressly aims at illustrating the regular evolution of society and, similarly takes great pains in describing the historical role of the masses, it also devotes adequate space to presenting the role of historical figures.

5. In addition to expanding policy history and the history of society, the curriculum gives greater emphasis histori-cultural parts of the subject-matter, in other words to that knowledge which is related to material and intellectual culture.

In order to provide an adequate systematization of dealing with material and intellectual culture, outlines may be compiled for world and national cultural history.

6. The section dealing with separately summarized civics is indispensible to the curriculum as a whole.

The rationale behind this subject is that in its "historical component", the rudiments and patterns of the economic, social, political and cultural spheres constitute the main thust of the substantial systematization. Therefore, the concepts and patterns learnt in its "civic section" over three and a half years can be aptly applied when examining the economic, social, political and cultural life of the present: it is in this way that they take on a vitally direct and practical meaning.

The requirements

The subject can only fulfil the objectives stipulated by the curriculum if the students meet the requirements in the curriculum.

Consequently, objectives and requirements operate in close relation with one another. The teacher's task must also become the student's responsibility. In attempting to accomplish these tasks, the teacher helps his/her students to meet the stipulated requirements.

What are the most important characteristics of the curricular requirements?

1. Some of the requirements are very hard to formulate when given a particular subject, and this procedure may even be misleading. Developing behaviour and conviction presupposes requirements that go far beyond the borders of a given subject. Therefore, requirements for those are not contained

in the curriculum, but in the "General Basic Principles" and in the "Plan for the Education in and outside the School". What may be concretely established in the history and civics curriculum is a system of concepts and patterns which are then learnt applied by the students that constitutes the rational center of the world view. Nevertheless, the present curriculum accomplished for more than previous guides in this domain.

a/ This system of concepts exhibited in the following tabulation:

Concepts

I. Economic life

1. working tools
2. main characteristics of economic life
3. organizational framework of production
4. the method of production and of distribution
5. money economy
6. commerce
7. traffic
8. communication
9. settlements

II. Society

1. people and nation
2. family
3. social classes and strata
4. class struggle
5. parties and organizations
6. struggles within social classes

III. The state

1. social systems, state types
2. constitutional forms
3. territory of the state
4. official organization, taxation for the state
5. official organization, state administration

6. religious organization
7. legislation
8. armed forces, wars
9. jurisdiction
10. political rights
11. international relations

IV. Intellectual life in society

1. science, culture
2. progressive and retractive ideas
3. art
4. physical education
5. concepts concerning historical cognition.

Concepts belonging to individual domains are correlated in the curriculum guide; consequently teachers can see clearly that each concept in the curricula is a particular link in the chain of a single comprehensive system.

b/ The historical patterns grasped by students along with the concepts during the presentation of concrete historical material are based on the comprehension of internal correlations from the historical concepts. The patterns themselves also constitute a definite system, and we rightfully can regard that system to be one of the essential components and intellectual bases of the world view of students which is itself transforming and developing over time.

The students do not get acquainted with patterns by hearing ready-made formulations, but by analyzing the colourful reality of the history which effects both the mind and the emotions. They also discover the patterns through independent thinking /analyzing, synthetizing, comparing, generalizing, etc./ which leads them to appropriate conclusions, to see the patterns.

2. Thus, requirements concerning levels of proficiency, skills and abilities in connection with the cognition of the historical and social reality are indispensible for an ideo-

logical and ethical education in the preactice of pedagogy.

a/ Although, in principle, we might also mention levels of proficiency and skills separately under acquisition and presentations of the attainments, levels of proficiency, skills and abilities related to selecting, elaborating and applying the attainments are inseparable from pedagogical reality so that there is neither a need nor a possibility for separating them when defining the requirements. Therefore, requirements governing the "acquisition of knowledge" are dealt with in the same part of the curriculum.

b/ Nevertheless, requirements governing the expression of the knowledge - the sense of phrasing - constitute a separate domain.

c/ Requirements governing sense of direction in the historical time and space appear in a separate area of the curriculum.

d/ Requirements governing task-solving and problem-solving ability also appear separately.

Gradual development was the main objective in compiling the requirements. Subsequent requirements are the stairsteps by which students can arrive at ever-increasing levels of historical and social cognition.

Tools and procedures

Along with the curriculum of history and civics, experts prepared a catalogue of educational tools necessary to implement the subject pedagogical concept.

The curriculum emphasized the following basic tools among the collective educational tools:

a/ Compulsory equipment for students: the schoolbook, exercise book, historical atlas, and a test for each consecutive grade;

b/ Tools that schools should dispose of.

The latter are as follows: wall-map series, foil-map series, application series /including the chronological and topographical applications/, time-strip, diapositive and film strip series, script projector foil series, wall-picture series, collection of taped recordings historical picture series, standardized packages /one for every six students/ to help students work independently, history readers /one for every two students/, two copies of each volume of the sources selection series for secondary schools, two copies of each volume collected history exercises, dictionary of foreign words and expressions, subject bibliographies.

2. In accordance with the methodological concept of the new curriculum, history teaching in the public elementary school should be based upon story-teaching which describes the past. History and civics as a subject encompasses the most important historical and social events, relationships, patterns and lessons from the past and present: it involves facts and connections which make possible the apprehension and understanding of perspectives, tendencies and historical evolution and, in consequence prepares students for independent orientation and conscious social participation now and later, and in the society to come. The story, in turn, presents and restores the colourful and whirling reality of the past, the absolute richness of life in older times. The story is the vivid, human-centric, eventful symthesis of historical facts making past periods relievable, apprehensible and lifelike.

Public elementary school students getting acquainted with the subject of history can grasp historical facts, concepts and relationships about a generalized historical reality if they somehow "live out" the historical reality which served as the basis of the generalization. In other words: restored events and phenomena - the stories - become a point of departure for presenting a well-arranged system of historical concepts and relationships.

The role that story-teaching plays and the importance it assumes previous depend considerably on the quantity and quality of the students social experience and knowledge, on the level of development in their historical thinking. This does not mean that history teaching in the 5th and 6th grades stops at stories. The figuratively presented past should also be the object of analysis in the 5th and 6th grades: the necessary conclusions and generalizations should be drawn and then knowledge about history should be arranged in a system. Consequently, story-teaching does not replace history teaching but provides a foundation for it.

History teaching in the 7th and 8th grades draws upon what has been achieved in former grades to present past reality more synthetically, more comprehensively, on a higher plane of generalization, and with comprehensive historical relationships more deeply engrained. World history is taught not only by introducing characteristic anecdotes as it was in 5th and 6th grade, but by arranging outstanding events historically along a time line. This does not mean that there is no need for the figurative presentation in the 7th and 8th grade. The point in the higher grades is not to neglect story-teaching, but to apply it adequately at any given development level.

Consequently the "methodical pillars" in the history and civics curriculum for the public elementary school must necessarily be "history", and "student activity".

The experimental stage

As plans were being developed for public elementary school education and were eventually approved in the summer of 1977, experimental school books were gradually being adapted for history and civics courses /5th and 6th grade books were selected by request, 7th and 8th grade books by competition, and 8th grade civics books were still under development/.

Three years before their introduction, experimental schoolbooks and educational tools were submitted to a trial run in Szentendre town and district schools, as well as in training schools affiliated with teachers training colleges. At the same time we sent the experimental schoolbooks to all appropriate college and university chairs to be reviewed, civics manuscripts were also sent to the appropriate organizations, as well as organized social debates in Fejér and Borsod counties in the Pedagogues Trade Union. In this way several hundreds of remarks and correction proposals could be assembled for a given experimental schoolbook, and after the committee working on the schoolbooks determined position, these suggestions were reflected in the final draft by the authors. The advantages of this experimental phase were that the five schoolbooks could be viewed in a methodological unity over the course of four grades, and that the experimental schoolbooks both facilitated planning and preparation of educational tools assisted pedagogues in their preparation.

Educators prepared to teach with the new curriculum in the 1978-79 school-year by attending lectures in the city and several other convenient spots and reading various publications. The new curriculum was introduced gradually to the 5th grade in the 1980-81 schoolyear, and is currently set to be used this school-year /1984-85/ when the children from grades 5 to 8 will be taught with it.

Reactions to the new curriculum and initial results

Presumably due to the thorough and meticulous preparation, the new curriculum, schoolbooks and other educational tools were favourably received by the majority off children and teachers. Naturally, there were critical remarks as well. However, overwhelming response was far from true in every public elementary school subject! For the time being, we have tried to objectively assess the results only in the 5th and 6th grades where the curriculum has been used for a number of years.

The most striking feature of the study at hand is that the same tests were administered in the 5th and 6th grades of the same schools in 1983 as 16 years ago in 1967. The assessment was conducted three years after each curricula had been introduced. Consequently, the difference between the results of the two curricula was more or less accurate. Achievements increased by approximately 10 to 15 percent and students made significant progress especially in the domain of conceptual knowledge.

Naturally, it must not be forgotten that the differences in the 1967 and 1983 data are not only a product of the new curriculum, but also result from the change in pedagogical approach by the teachers a fact which is corroborated by achievement totals for selected schools:

Serial number of the school	1967	1983
1st	49 percent	46 percent
3rd	52 percent	54 percent
4th	39 percent	62 percent

Consequently, a single bad teacher can set back the results achieved 16 years ago, in spite of improving conditions!

As far as quantitative index-numbers are concerned findings established by school superintendents probably form a more comprehensive and realistic picture.

The "bright side"

"In the 5th grade, we succeeded making students fond of the subject. In spite of the rating which may be regarded as accurate an insignificant number of students failed at the end of the school-year. The students grew to like the textbook and the workbook which offered a great deal of pictorial information." /Győr/

"During the majority /about two-thirds/ of the classes, our colleagues can count upon the children's working. In the majority of the cases the children attain the knowledge themselves with the aid of educational tools and the guidance of educators." /Békés/

"By virtue of the fact that exercises in the history books make the students work harder and that greater methodological freedom is constantly being developed, modifications in the ratio of teaching to learning are almost always in the direction of making the students study. Textbooks, chapters in the Illustrated History series, the use of learning lab and material its use during lessons are assuming a greater role in the classroom. Specialized rooms provide a place for students to work independently. The most suitable place for learning, for acquiring knowledge is the specialized history lecture-room. There is a fixed number of such rooms in the county: some kind of specialized history lecture-room is present in 159 out of 255 schools /62 percent/." /Borsod/

"The result of working with so many tools is that they begin to become accepted and adequately used. In addition to the negative experiences, there are great many positive experiences as well and the most important thing is that learning history is pleasurable and interesting for the students that pedagogues are also delighted with results achieved by the new tools. Nor is it no mean accomplishment the sad state of affairs where students were classified as either good or bad on the eve of the introduction of the new curriculum has begun to disappear. By now there are average students as well: and those average students came from the bad ones." /Szabolcs/

"The new curriculum stimulates work outside the framework of the lessons and the presentation of new types of lessons, such as:

- lessons held in museums /Szeged, Makó, Ópusztaszer, etc./;

- lessons held in libraries: walks through towns of historic interest.

Those lessons with well-planned exercise series promote the independent acquisition of knowledge /use of catalogues and specialized encyclopaedia, notetaking source analyses etc./. We deem it especially important to teach local history: more help should be given to educators, in addition to the help they have already received.

These facts lead us to conclude that a routine approach is not enough to work in the spirit of the new curriculum." /Csongrád/

Our colleagues can almost universally count on the knowledge students acquire outside the framework of the lessons from television, radio, reading, film etc. mostly by teacher inspiration. When working in this relaxed atmosphere, the students themselves also feel the need to complete the material to the best of their own knowledge." /Békés/

"The concomitant phenomena introduced by the new curriculum are more relaxed conduct of the lesson, the impetus for making students work, frequent and diversified evaluation of performance, the use of increasingly expedient methods of demonstration, render attention to making the discriminatively, the prominence given to skills formation parallelism in development and the elimination of lags, guidance of students' activity outside the framework of the lessons /museum, library, films, field trips, group study contests, competitions, making collections. In addition to the more active use of textbooks, encyclopaedia, dictionaries, source selections, etc., the teachers' approach has changed favourably since talent development and nurturing extends to more and more students." /Győr/

<u>The "dark side"</u>

"We must not, however, become too optimistic. Most students must still be encouraged to work persistently and to learn

systematically, essential conditions for consolidating knowledge. Considerable work in this area not only awaits history teachers, but also teaching-staffs and leaders of the schools." /Veszprém/

"The work morale of the students was still the most important problem. Conscious is not enough for the acquisition of active knowledge: students are erratic in their persistence, and students with good abilities often content themselves with lower marks because of their lack of diligence." /Zala/

"The widespread dissemination of basic skills and insufficiency in the ability to interpret texts as well as in other skills necessary for knowledge acquisition demonstrated on our assessments limit the more powerful evolvement independent student work methods." /Borsod/

"Which factors hindered and thwarted the realization of the curriculum objectives?

Student activities /one of the most important pillars in our history teaching/ can hardly be conducted when the number of students in classes is so high.

The five-day work week made afternoons hectic. The schools are still afraid of saying no to several programmes and contests. The stepped-up work pace makes teachers nervous. It impedes self-education and preparation for classes.

The educators are getting acquainted with several curricula /history, literature, Hungarian language/ at the same time. The afternoon extension training also over-burdens educators." /Csongrád/

"During approximately 10 percent of the lessons, the approach to teaching was primarily catechismal or the material was simply relegated." /Békés/

3. The future

To the question of "how to continue" representatives of different trends give heterogeneous answers.

According to some "concepts proliferate" in public elementary school history teaching: "history has lost its emotional weight" and therefore it would be advisable to return to the methodical spirit in the Ratio Educationis of Maria Theresa, to the teaching of history "as a catalogue of moral examples".

Others suggest on the contrary that important is to develop precisely this "scientific dimension". Therefore, for instance, textbook writing for the public elementary schools should be entrusted to scholars, to historians who are not hindered by pedagogical limitations /e.g. with outlining the scope and level of concepts to be developed/.

Still others consider the way to progress lies in developing an "integrated history subject" where in addition to its own domains /economic history, social history, cultural history, policy history, military history, etc./, history integrates auxiliary sciences /archeology, etnography, etc./ and even modern social sciences /sociology, political economics, etc./.

A final group of specialists insisted on the currently prevailing notion of equilibrium between intellectual and emotional educations, on considering the "age-group characteristics" of students and the principle of conscious development, as well as drawing upon the unlimited integrative power of history. This group started research on the creation of a spirally integrated programme of social science.

Regarded from this viewpoint, the 1978 curriculum is to be criticised mainly for the fact that social science instruction remains centered on the past, chronological and concentric. It has got to be built on the basic principle "one science - one subject". It has bet to incorporate modern social sciences dealing with modern day problems and the role of

the individual. The curriculum is "over-centralized" at present. Moreover the teacher has freedom to choose topics only in case of the supplementary subject-matter, and exclusively in the use or the elaboration of alternative programmes accommodating actual local demands. As a result of the narrow approach centered on lessons, social science instruction is not related to the problems encountered in children's everyday life; public life in school has get to become a trial ground for developing the democratic life model based on self-government.

Some of the enumerated critical remarks had already been raised during initial work on the reform. In order to implement them, however, a number of other factors influencing the content of the education in the school would have had to be radically changed: value preferences in education policy, the character of the direction of education, the school structure, teacher training, etc. The end of the 1970's, however, was not propitious for such radical changes, which after all, perhaps, is not a great problem approximate as nearly as can be achieved what is "desirable" and "possible" - since many agree that the way to reform realistically - "desirable" and "possible" - is to develop "continuously" and disseminate gradually based on the equilibrium of local and central decisions and on scientific research, and not the "introductory" strategy postulating a universal solution to all problems.

In the spirit of this perception, an increased role has been given to scientific research which undertakes to describe a situation, to examining the roots of the problems and exploring prospective tendencies of development, as well as to developing research on given alternatives so that solutions for the problems at hand can be elaborated and submitted to trial.

In 1981, we started research in this direction to develop a spirally built, integrated social science programme embracing both elementary and the secondary education.

The basic principles of the program which emerged as a result of the research are as follows.

"Double pedestal"

At the very beginning of our research, we preferred the concept, as others have done, that history alone should unite, and establish in an organic framework for substantial methodological results based on research from all the social sciences which are important to the young. By now, however, we think that the program should stand on a double pedestal and not on a single one: in addition to the knowledge from the past, we must also incorporate knowledge about the present.

In our beliefs we have not merely been convinced at conferences organized when examining the level of demands /since discussions in this topic have been going on for years/ but also by studies dealing with the history of the problem and by studies that made comparisons on a global basis.

Consequently:

- Current debates on the importance of teaching about past and present and the proportions in which they should be taught are not recent but date back to the early part of this century.

- Actual social and political circumstances played a

- Experiences in the history of education show that knowledge about the past is unconditionally needed for understanding the present and for effective study of the present.

- In turn, demand for knowledge about the present increases in this period of dynamic progressive, economic, social and political changes.

It follows from the above that the current tendencies in economic, social, political development necessitate a more realistic and problem-oriented social science instruction in our country where a "double pedestal" is built on the knowledge of both the past and present.

Spiral construction

In light of the studies which attempted to trace the history of problems and compare international results, it also became clear that the chronological structure of the curricula which had developed by virtue of social science instruction centered on the past reflected the structure of historical science. Since that 19th century curriculum-building strategy was characteristic of all school grades, a concentricity had developed which, when disseminated by schooling, actually meant the manifold repetition of the subject-matter.

Linear programmes replacing concentricity in some countries, however, are also filled with internal contradictions, mainly because there is only a single approach for dealing with certain relationships, concepts, social and historical phenomena, and with related factors which children are still not able to understand at given point in their lives.

The situation is further complicated by viewpoints about knowledge of the present which have been gaining acceptance. Nevertheless, if we put social science instruction on a double pedestal, the principle of beginning by teaching the past and teaching the present to conclude it can no longer be adhered to, since in this case, the knowledge of the present is inevitably restricted to the grades /on different levels/ where the social science instruction is concluded. It is evident from all this that a new curriculum model is needed.

In the past decades, programmes have been introduced which have provided some instructive views.

Because the new curriculum planning strategies concentrate not merely on educational topics but on spheres of development, there is a possibility that the respective curricula of schools with different grade levels would not repeat one another if we planned the subject-matter and student activity with topics frequently renewed based on the spirally widening and deepening system of fundamental conceptual circles and on

the spheres of ability and attitude formation of the students. In order to achieve this, however, it is also necessary that the programme should extend not only to a given school level but to the whole schooling system, and that it should not reflect the logical structure of individual sciences but it should accommodate to the interests, circle of experiences and developmental traits of the students and, moreover, should also be based on an independent logical structure which is relevant from the point of view of changing social demands.

Our overall spiral program is based on the operationalized development strategy of key concepts, abilities and attitude characteristics.

Integration

The problem of integrating the social sciences also emerged in the modern classroom at the beginning of this century. The problem was triggered by the growth of the modern sciences and the necessity to include them in education, as well as by pedagogical and psychological considerations that deemed the educational logic derived from scientific systems was alien to the developmental traits of students. The accelerated scientific and technological development of the 1960's and of the 1970's strengthened cooperation in the different scientific fields and thus, in past decades, many quarters of the world maintain that the synthetical and interdisciplinary approach should be asserted in education as well.

Undeniably the integrated social science curricula promote, in large measure, the problem-handling and problem-solving abilities of students. Among others needs which need to be developed in order to fulfill those aims, in our opinion there is a need for developing an analytical approach as well which, in turn, is supported by the specific approach of certain sciences. Therefore, our programme contains both integrated and autonomous topics /subjects/, the former on the elementary and university levels and the latter on the secondary level of education.

In its narrowest sense integration means synthetizing topics /subjects/ and, in its broadest, consciously planning an integrated system of autonomous analytical and synthetizing topics /subjects/ that constitute an organic unity. It is in the latter sense that we regard the integration to be a fundamental principle, that is, within the coherent system of social science education we try to create an adequate balance of integrated and autonomous topics /subjects/.

Independent student

As pedagogy developed across the world during the 1960's, trends in pedagogical reform characterized by a shift from reproductivity productivity had strengthened anew. The presence and re-introduction of "researching", "exploring" and "problem-solving" educational strategies reflect that change in approach.

During the learning and teaching process in the school, a need naturally developed for developing the independent cognitive activities of students in the framework of the social science subjects as well. We might add that this approach is especially pertinent in Hungary today, since the transition from the "extensive phase" to the "intensive phase" makes possible the education of students who can work independently. At the same time, we also believe independent student activity in social science instruction is not merely an independent cognitive activity but has a broader significance, social science instruction should help students prepare for public and various other social roles and therefore it should also draw the public and everyday social activity of children into the process of instruction.

We therefore based the system of activities in our programme on tasks that develop the knowledge and the abilities necessary for lifelong democratic conduct and that allow ample margin for exercising beliefs based on unprejudicedness, tolerance and empathy, on the acceptance of "otherness".

Alternativity

The principle of alternativity means that, in addition to the concepts and minimum thematical and ability levels necessary to secure collective fundamental erudition in the social sciences, the greatest possible freedom should be given to schools and pedagogues in selecting concrete topics for presentation. Interests, the circle of experience, development pace and direction, the individual composition of a given student group, the place of the parents in the social division of labour and their stratum culture, the pedagogues' inclination for self-renewal, etc., are all determining factors and, consequently, they could specifically alter concrete subject-matter, the presentation of which is necessary for deepening required concepts and developing channelled abilities and attitudes. Therefore in addition to the curricular minimum, our program contains topic recommendations within the greater themes which, in addition to creating room for choice, may serve as a model, a point of departure for the topic-planning work of the pedagogues.

Otherwise, the programme is built upon three planes and five levels. The three planes include: /1/ pairs of key concepts, /2/ groups for social science activities, /3/ behavioural characteristics. The five levels consist of: a/ everyday student activity conducted on the level of games and picture-books /last grade of kindergarten - first grade of school/, b/ integrated elementary social attainments /2nd to 4th grades/, c/ visualization of the history of our country and our lifestyle, as well as world historical "outlooks" /5th to 6th grades/, d/ systematized world and national history /7th to 10th grades/, e/ integrated social science attainments, or detailed history, philosophy, sociology, political economics, anthropology, politology, social psychology, depending on the students' career preferences or desire to continue their studies /11th to 12th grades/. The pairs of key concepts aptitude groups and behavioural characteristics on each level integrate the partial courses

and disciplines and organize them into an organic unity on an ever higher degree.

Naturally, the draft programme currently under consideration is only one of many possible solutions. Consequently, in the present study it has mainly served to illustrate the kinds of principles, directions and tendencies being taken by the social science and history cultural coaliting and which have been adopted for the National Pedagogical Institute's comprehensive public education development programme where we intend to implement them to insure better education.

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Ervin Vladár

THE SCOPE AND SITUATION OF HISTORY TEACHING IN HUNGARY

In Hungary, History is in the forefront of social interest. This is not only because History is the object of the collective memory but also because the past, and the question of a nation's relationship to its own past is not an insignificant factor. This is particularly true in the case of a nation like Hungary which has been living through the enormous transformations of our time parallel to the change of its own social form. Recently, a substantial number of identity problems have become aggravated all over the world and this appears - not accidentally - to be the case as far as attitudes to the past are concerned.

In Hungary, in the 1960's, there was a great deal of debate in the press, within scientific bodies, among historians and also among the public at large, creating a realistic image of the past of our society, on the basis of prospering historical research. In the past one and half decades, many illusions surviving from the past have been examined by researchers and their significance measured. The whole debate counteracted the excess of rationalism and started the process of developing a more balanced historical image.

We had to look anew for real national values of which we can rightfully be proud and we had to create a balance between the events of our past and the events of the past of other nations. The often painful debate which finally, however, resulted in clarification, increased interest in history. This new interest has remained. This can be seen in the popularity of historical films dealing with our past and with our common past with surrounding nations, the publishing of a great number of historical books - which are selling rapidly -, by several articles and series of debates on television, as

well as by the fact that history occupies a very distinguished place in the order of popularity of subjects.

Our students in the 3rd and 4th grades of elementary school read tales and legends about the Hungarian people and other peoples. Following that, they begin to systematically learn history in the 5th grade, at the age of 11. In the upper section of the public elementary school, we teach History two lessons a week in the 5th to 7th grades and three lessons a week in the 8th grade. In the second half of the 8th grade, the Historical studies approaching our times are replaced by social studies. Elementary school pupils also have the opportunity to have additional optional lessons in history, with 2 lessons a week being provided in the 7th and 8th grades.

In the secondary schools, history is taught in the following number of lessons:

schooltype	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th
			grade		
grammar-school	2	2	3	4	11
facultation			2	3	+5
specialized secondary school	2	2	2	2	8
vocational training school	1	1	2	-	4

/the numbers indicate the lessons given a week/

[1] About the secondary school types: grammar-schools are 4-grade secondary schools offering general education and attended by 19 to 22 percent of the age-group; 28 to 32 percent of the age-group attend the three types of specialized secondary schools /the so-called specialized secondary schools for training skilled workers, the so-called vocational secondary schools and the 5-grade school training technicians which will come into operation in the 1985/1986 schoolyear/ offering qualifications; and 48 to 50 percent of the age-group attend 3-grade vocational training schools.

In the grammar-school and in the specialized secondary school, history is a compulsory subject at the final examination. In the grammar-school system of optional lessons, pupils can learn history as choice, along with the compulsory lessons.

At the end of the 1970's, we introduced new syllabuses in all school types during the modernization of public education. The new syllabus was justified by the fact that many new results had been produced since the former reform in the mid-sixties and many new educational insights had been gained into the development of the personality. New ideas of how to regulate educational process, didactics and the methodology of history had also been updated, and school practice had become more efficient. The new syllabus and schoolbooks were intended to incorporate these results and absorb them.

The number one educational aim in the teaching of history became to bring up pupils as socialist citizens of the Hungarian state, by making them familiar with history so that they could correctly judge the past of mankind and of our people and that they could take a correct stand on the main questions of their future life, through experience. The attitude pervading the syllabus appears in fundamental totalities. Thus, the starting point of our approach is, in every case, is to progress steadily from the totality of the world to the region of Europe, then the region of Central Europe and to Hungarian history. That approach is directly opposed to a Hungarocentric approach that establishes nationalist tendencies by the overestimation of the national past. The notion of totality, includes totality in the teaching material with an attempt to illustrate the leading ideas and different ages - based on the history of their economy and society -, the attitudes, the habits, the legal situation, the education - the material and intellectual culture - in short the level of civilisation of a people. That richer and more comprehensive

illustration picture provided by the new syllabus is the basis for presenting our historical and dialectical approach and conception of history. A more varied picture of History offers better opportunities to the intellect to analyse and evaluate prophetic and contradictory tendencies, and to develop a feel and empathic approach to historical situations. In the new syllabus, a significant role has been given to the related and auxiliary sciences of history, such as demography, the history of the surface of the earth /orographical history/, the history of technology and the history of arts.

History is divided into periods in the different school types /cp. with the number of lessons shown on page 2/ as follows:

public elementary school	5th grade	6th grade	7th grade	8th grade
world history	cca 1000	cca 1000-1640	1640-1918	1917 - up to the present day
Hungarian history	cca 1000	cca 1000-1526	1526-1918	1918 - up to the present day
grammar-school	1st grade	2nd grade	3rd grade	4th grade
world history	cca 1000	cca 1000-1640	1640-1914	1914-1970
Hungarian history	cca 1000	cca 1000-1711	1711-1914	1914-1970
specialized secondary school	1st grade	2nd grade	3rd grade	4th grade
world history	1492	1492-1871	1871-1939	1939-1970
Hungarian history	1526	1526-1867	1867-1939	1939-1970

vocational training school	1st grade	2nd grade	3rd grade
world history	1640	1640-1914	1914-1982
Hungarian history	1711	1711-1914	1914-1982

As can be seen from the data, the curricula try to the different ages are represented equally, giving time to ancient cultures and civilizations which exercised a great influence on the history of Europe and of the world, and giving significant space to modern History. World and Hungarian history are represented approximately half-and-half in the syllabus. In the schoolbooks, first the presentation of the world history can be found and that is followed by a description of Hungarian developments, but in certain periods /for instance, World War I, development after 1945/ they are treated parallelly.

In the syllabus and in the schoolbooks, the so-called basic teaching material and the supplementary teaching material are separated. In the period preceding the reform, we studied for almost a decade what is the amount of knowledge, which forms an indispensable part of general education and is necessary for understanding historical processes but at the same time teachable in its depth and quantity, and which can be treated even in the worst circumstances /bad institutional background, small settlements, ill-equipped schools, students with weaker abilities, etc./. The results of these enquiries lead to approximately two-thirds to three-quarters of the teaching material contained in the curricula and in the schoolbooks becoming the new subject-matter and the remaining part becoming supplementary. The basic teaching material contains fundamentally important knowledge. This is itemized in the curricula requirement system, and the degree to which they are mastered serves as a method for evaluating the pupil as well. The coverage of the supplementary subject-

matter is not compulsory, it is only dealt with after satisfactory treatment of the basic material. According to our experiences, the majority of the schools cover a smaller or greater proportion of the supplementary subject-matter, in many cases its entirety, or even deal with material not contained in the curricula.

Teachers are given a free hand concerning the timing and method of treating the material contained in the syllabus and formulated in the so-called detailed requirement systems. The regulation, according to which the students should fulfil the requirements by the end of the schoolyear, left the planning and the realization of the educational process at the discretion of the teacher and by that it decentralized the regulation of the educational process. That solution allows large scope for the realization of the teacher's own ideas, for creativity, since the teacher - besides his/her responsibility - is becoming a more and more sovereign master of his/her own activity.

During the reform, historical cognitive and adaptive abilities also came into the foreground. The theory and systematization of the historical abilities generated many debates and they were thoroughly tested in practice as well. Finally, a consensus emerged around a concept which refers the abilities to the different areas of cognition as well as the operations processing them, and communication, interpreting the abilities in a practical manner, bearing in mind the child's age and the principle of progressivity in their development. According to the reform, we consider "knowledge" to be constituted of two fundamental elements: on the one hand, the acquisition of historical knowledge and, on the other hand, the acquisition of the abilities, aptitudes and skills which are necessary to gather, treat and use information. The areas and levels of development of abilities are separately determined by the syllabus for each respective grade. In practice, the teacher's manuals, the

detailed requirement systems, the tests in the schoolbooks, and the collection of formative and summative tests help the teachers to perform this task.

To evaluate whether a pupil has achieved mastery, a primary role is given to the teacher who intends to evaluate the activity of the students as comprehensively as possible /on the basis of answers, class activities, tests, guided, guidedly independent and independent collection and research work, etc./, as well as general tests which, after the completion of curricular units, mostly give more objective quantifiable information to the educator about the knowledge of the students.

Optional education began in the grammar-schools in 1981.[2] History is optional, in the 3rd and 4th grades, with 2 or 3 lessons a week available. Many students choose history which hact is motivated by their wish to enter higher education and prepare for entrance examinations which, in the majority of the cases, coincides with the interest in history as well. The teaching material chronologically follows the so-called basic teaching material /compulsory for everyone/. This is a loose constraint since the syllabus recommends four or five topics for treatment, but they are not binding and the topics can even be mixed or replaced with locally planned teaching material also possible.

The primary purpose of the optional lessons is not to increase the amount of material to be learnt but the development of cognitive and elaborating abilities. The extra knowl-

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[2] Optional lessons extend to 60 subjects approximately. History is chosen by 15 to 21 percent of the students which means that optional history exists in every grammar-school and, in some cases, several groups deal with it in the same school.

edge is only the "raw material", the natural concomitant of the development of abilities.[3] Thus, the majority of optional lessons deal with material in which the independence of students plays a very significant role.

Since this was not formerly customary in the Hungarian public education, the selection of the subject-matter, the development of expedient methods to develop abilities constituted a difficult task for history teachers - the preparation for the lessons required significant amounts of time in the first years.

The elementary school option started in the 1984/1985 schoolyear in the schools where the standard of teaching, material conditions and intellectual forces were deemed suitable. The syllabus consists of self-cintained units, running from the prehistoric age to the present day they produced selected chapters, on the basis of the available reading books, writings on local history, popular scientific articles, etc. We have not yet had enough experience, concerning optional work in the public elementary school, which could be generalized, because of the short time which has passed since its introduction.

The teaching of history is helped by many demonstrative aids. In the elementary schools one separate reading book is used in each grade. In the secondary schools, 11 volumes of collected passages can be riffled by the students. In the elementary schools, the Atlas of Illustrated History is used, while in the secondary schools the Atlas of History which is more abstract from the point of view of its cartographical execution. The Atlas of Social and Cultural History, the second atlas for secondary schools is going to be published in the near future. In each school type series of

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[3] The reason is that the optional History teaching has no textbook, only a collection of source-materials and selected passages.

slides, floats and tapes are used. Besides, this both in the elementary and secondary educations, the schools dispose of many kinds of aids /films, records, pictures, blackboards, educational equipment, blank maps, copies of museum pieces, standardized students' packages, locally prepared aids, etc./. The supply of our aids is abundant, all helping teachers to work independently.

Our inter-school competitions are wide-ranging. In the lower grades of public elementary school, the students participate in class and school competitions in history. The 7th and 8th graders can enter competitions organized by the National Institute of Education each year. The pupils write essays on the topics set by the Institute of 6 to 10 pages. Having got beyond county level, the best ones can participate at the National History Camp.

The lower grades of the secondary school also participate in local competitions and contests. The 3rd and 4th graders can enter the National Secondary School Competition in History. The competition committee sets three themes each years which the competitors treat in 25 to 40 pages. After the local and regional rounds, the best competitors reach the national finals. As far as the subject is concerned, the competitors placed first to tenth are exempted from taking both the final examination in secondary school and the entrance examination for higher education. The expectations are very high concerning those competitions. To illustrate this, it is enough to mention the fact that the majority of our young history researchers previously were among the placed competitors.

There are two forms of in-service training. There are annual conferences where lectures are given on History theory and methodology which are followed by consultation. The county Pedagogical Institutes organize one-year and two-year complex history seminars for those interested. Those seminars regularly end with the writing of a final composition. Besides

the training institutions of higher education, a new form of the extension training is about to begin in which the students study either Educational Theory, History or methodology. That post-gradual form also ends with the writing of a final composition and involves moral and financial acknowledgements.

The professional programmes of the National Institute of Education and the Hungarian Society for History are voluntary forms of extension training in which a great number of history teachers participate. Within the framework of these programmes, certain questions related to teaching of history, the relation between history and other subjects in school and the possibilities for their cooperation are discussed. The specialized part of the lectures given at the Summer Academy for History Teachers organized every second year deals with the problems of a given age or region while the methodological lectures outline and debate the results of research and of inquiries and the development of History teaching.

The self-education of teachers is helped by several publications. Besides the publications on Historical research, methodological books and booklets are published by different publishing companies and by the National Institute of Education. The teachers' manuals, the guide-books, the detailed requirement systems, the test collections, the volumes of studies, etc., can be counted among these publications. Taking into account our narrow means, 10 to 15 volumes of such publications are handed to teachers a year.

We try to establish the results of teaching of History in many different ways. Specialized inspectors carry out this work as well as the results achieved at inter-school competitions, final and entrance examinations. Last year, we held a national inquiry concerning the efficacity of our textbooks, the methods used during history lessons, the attitudes of teachers and students, and - affecting every grades of each school type - the efficiency of the teaching of history. The computerized processing and verbal assessment

of that inquiry have partly been done and is partly under way.

The inquiries have been so extensive because, on the basis of the experience of teaching the new curricula and the new schoolbooks through several years, we began works to eliminate and correct the errors and inequalities in them. That phase is, however, linked with the general and continuous improvement of the teaching of history and of the education of social science.

It would be difficult to write about the latter now, in the beginning of this work, even in the form of a draft conception. Among the writings of this volume, the ones can be found which already touch upon the future as well, with some suggestions. Their alloyage into an organic unity, their shaping into the form of curriculum, their building into the system of subjects will take a form admitted and used by the school education only after a longer conceptive phase of experiments and trials.

Dr. István Horányi

History teaching at grammar-school

DEBATES AND VIEWS ON THE MODERNIZATION OF HISTORY TEACHING

In the 1970's, Hungarian public education went through a significant reform. The demand for further improvement in school education raised the question of the reason for and the actuality of history teaching as well. The most extreme forms of criticism saw history teaching situated at the center of social science education and its most extreme exponents even called the necessity of history teaching into question. The debate revolved around a more sophisticated interpretation of school History, around the inclusion of new findings on the one hand, and around the wider presentation of social development, on the other. Specialists were discussing whether it would be necessary to introduce two separate subjects dealing with the past and present. It had to be decided what should be covered in connection with social changes and which social sciences would be capable of transmitting the information and attitudes expressed in traditional school History. The idea of an integrated History subject, embracing past and present in their continuity, providing both a world historical approach and showing the complexity of social existence, was born in that debate.[1/]

We considered the integration of the social sciences into school History necessary, provided that the material concerning man and society was organized historically.

In preparing the syllabus, the following main considerations played a role:

- We were opposed to a narrow interpretation of history, and consider it essential that while bearing in mind the

methodological, psychological and subject requirements of human-centricity, History should integrate the most important results of economics, demography, sociology, linguistics, etnography, of the philosophy of science, philosophy of technology, history of religion and ideology and of archeology, etc. In addition to including these sciences, it should deal with science research methods as well;

- the teaching of history, embracing the whole history of mankind, describes the "prevailing present" up to the present and also serves to provide a historically-based approach to the present.

- History is usually presented chronologically. The starting point for the treatment of each great historical period is the full picture of the world then, and this leads to a discussion of the region involved. The social structures representing classical development and the specific, individual social forms that existed at the same time can be introduced within in such a framework. It should be demonstrated that societies existed in addition to societies representing the main course of historical development that had reached different levels of development. That is, stagnation and decline exist not only in temporal succession but also coexist in space.

The fact that mankind shows development during its whole history does not mean that individual nations and countries developed linearly. Consequently, the inequalities and shifts in the main points of the historical development should also be demonstrated.

- In the interests of a concrete presentation of the real dialectics of the history, it is necessary to provide a more analytic presentation, corresponding to historical reality, of "stagnating" state forms, conservative institutions and classes. By revealing the contradictory course of historical progress, it should be illustrated how development sometimes occurs, leaps and bounds.

- It should be emphasized that the determinative nature of natural and economic /social, geographical, etc./ circumstances did not mean the lack of different alternatives. The classes, peoples and nations of each period had their own opportunities to chose. The living dialectics of history help to form young people's sense of responsibility and, through adequate social experience, the conviction that we must try to recognize and flight for what is possible in our epoch.

- We should strive to present the dramatic conflicts of history in their real dialectics. It is necessary to present in due depth and measure the enormous human efforts exerted in the area of production of material goods, that can be illustrated by the history of human work, science and technology. At the same time, we should explain the function of the prevailing laws, ideologies, revolutionary and counter-revolutionary intellectual trends.

We should strive to present different historical periods in a differentiated manner. We should emphasize that industructable human achievements were created in those histtorical moments when peoples succeeded in making the best possible use of their economic, social and political opportunities.

The points above represent an answer to those who, during the debate, intended to create a huge number of new subjects in the grammar schools to teach about the nature of human society. 2/

The fundamental principles show new attitudes towards History /historicity, totality, uneven development, alternativity, protracted development trends, relative independence of the superstructure/ and they contained theoretical and practical requirements, integration, a synchronistic approach, temporal and spatial extension of the teaching material, orientation towards the present, and development of research capabilities/.

In addition, the syllabus issued in 1978 was based on experiments with the former curricula, and on their structure. We must emphasize, also, that the syllabus in force at present constitutes a link in the chain of the long-range development of grammar-school History education to be completed at the turn of the next century.[3/]

OBJECTIVES AND TASKS OF GRAMMAR-SCHOOL HISTORY EDUCATION

According to the syllabus, the primary objective of grammar-school history education is the forming of a Marxist-Leninist approach towards History. It contributes to ideological education in the schools by creating views on the essential questions involving social development. The syllabus emphasizes the necessity to acquire facts and links in the interest of securing a firm knowledge of the subject. Its fundamental objective is that students see history as a process. History is a process determined by complicated interactions, necessities and laws, and its regularities can be revealed. The syllabus emphasizes the significance of the presentation history as a process also from the point of view of ideological and political education. The interpretation of history as a process and, consequently, the forming of a consciousness of the past coupled with responsibility for human development plays a significant role in moral education as well.

From an educational point of view, the effort of the syllabus to interpret development not only as a linear process but one including detours, regressions and standstills is significant. For example, when it emphasizes that man gradually establishes his power over nature, it also shows the dangers that follow from his disengagement from nature. Pertinent to the picture drawn of the development of technology, it shows the danger of an upset in the ecological equilibrium; or, when presenting the role and development of labour, it emphasizes that labour may result not only in the

unification, socialization of mankind but also in its division: it may become the source of social and national conflicts as well.

When deciding the objectives of History education, one should not simply consider it as a process. In addition to the regularities, it accentuates the historical role and significance of man who makes history. In connection with the recognition of the role and significance of man - always in the given period -, the syllabus shows the need to be politically active.

In our history education, the increase in the role played by man and his significance links with the interpretation of the subject as an integrated social science subject. In comparison to former history education, the teaching material has become richer. In this stidy of the past, material describing social achievements, place, opportunities, way of life, morals and the spiritual life of man are accentuated.

These are the educational objectives that determine the fundamental educational tasks as well. In the interest of the realizing the above-mentioned objectives, the students should be convinced about

- the laws of change in development,
- the effects of productive work on development,
- the history-forming role of the working classes,
- the significance of historical personalities, and
- the historical mission of the working class.

The syllabus emphasizes that history education has an important role to play in the forming of communist morals and of the corresponding range of emotions. To avoid one-sided intellectualism, the syllabus emphasizes the need for a history education promoting the joy of exploration, and the blossoming of emotions. Teaching socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism is also an important task in the field of moral and political education.

Our students can be encouraged to be patriotic not only on the basis of the events of the past. History may really fulfil its function in the development of the personality of students by looking for and finding the answers to the questions of the present as well. The syllabus interprets patriotic and internationalist education not only in itself and in isolation but in interaction with the phenomena of social and ideological life, and that is why the curriculum emphasizes, in addition to the presentation of the results of socialist construction, the presentation of the system of relations between the countries; as an ideal and as the result of a peaceful and socially constructive atmosphere in those countries, and in connection with the history of surrounding nations, the elimination of the remnants of nationalist consciousness. History education specifically contributes to the education for national defence and to the development of a vernacular culture.

In history education, the curriculum gives a special emphasis to the development of thinking and abilities. By this, it also considers education as the development of abilities, forming of the personality, multi-sided and harmonious development of the personality of students through the possibilities offered by history education. Consequently, the syllabus intends to develop the student's personality at an intellectual, moral, political and ideological, aesthetical level not only by transmitting the knowledge but the objective also is to develop abilities.

Guided by the didactic and topical structure of the information taught, the possibilities of development of abilities are illustrated by Chart 1.

Chart 1.

Attainment types	Abilities and skills
basic teaching material	- intelligent reading, - reading comprehension, - mastery in the use of textbooks, - independent breation of brief summaries
supplementary teaching material	- intelligent reading, - emphasizing the gist of a text, - systematization of data, - exploration of the connection with the basic material, - posing questions, - interpretation of the historical process described
written sources from various periods	- emphasizing the gist of a text, - posing questions, - drawing conclusions, - building the conclusions into the system of knowledge, - verbal expression
charts, tables	- recognition, - analyses, - comparison, - drawing conclusions, - building the conclusions into a system of knowledge, - verbal expression
pictures, drawings, maps	- content recognition, description, - analysis, presentation, - building the new attainments into a system of knowledge - conclusion, verbal expression.

The syllabus formulates the basic knowledge and abilities, to be acquired during the lessons, beyond which the students, with different abilities and motivation, interested in history and in different processes of social change, can launch out on the road of independent study, research and exploration. The realization of these objectives of the syllabus are supported by our textbooks as well.

The objectives and tasks cannot only be realized with the help of teaching material and not always with similar methods and means. As a result, the teaching material can be partly varied, while the methods and means can totally vary.

The structure of the syllabus

The pedagogical structure of the syllabus is illustrated by Chart 2.

Chart 2

The general, theoretical background to the realization of the main objectives in the teacher's work	objectives:	Brief, concise, specific objectives of history teaching; general objectives linking to fundamental educational aims of the grammar-schools.
	tasks:	Teacher's tasks concerning the selection of specific objectives in connection with the pedagogical realization of given instruction material of given grades.
Basic teaching material; the unified basis of general education. Supplementary teaching material: recommended general teaching material to be shaped to suit the given pedagogical situation, to optimize the success of education.	teaching material:	General and differentiated allocation of topics through which the tasks of education instruction and training should be solved optimally
	requirements:	General norms and assessment to measure effectiveness.
	methods:	The methodological direction of work to ensure optimal realization of aims
	appliances, educational equipment	The enumeration of fundamental equipment types recommended for realization of aims.

The interpretation of complexity and integration

Complexity, as a matter of fact, also characterized our former syllabus since even at that time we made efforts to present historical development through varied social science materials. It was the same syllabus that tried, for the first time, to screen the conventional material and to embrace - as far as it is possible in the school - the whole of material culture. In the present syllabus, however, complexity is linked more determinedly to integration.

In history teaching, interpretation of the complexity was merely internal and did not strive to integrate factors creating change in society that were discovered as a result of research using the approach and methods typical of sciences of a historical character other than historical science. It did not consider, in its entire complexity, the question of social change either, merely striving to approach the unity of cause and effect within "conventional" history. In the present syllabus, the complexity of the history has been broadened and this can be perceived in two areas. The first one is that more and more information was included that helps to give a more comprehensive picture of how human kind produced material goods and organized itself into societies, what the conditions of existence were like, how it took care of their satisfaction, what kinds of moral norms, customs, manners it had. That is made possible by the insertion of the etnography, the history of religion, the history of law and constitutional history, economics, sociology and ethics, in addition to different social sciences such as the history of technology and economic, social, political and cultural history. The other one is that the complexity brings about modernization in methodology and educational attitudes. Whether we succeed in organizing the above mentioned material into a homogeneous unity during the teaching process, it depends on this and naturally on the textbooks. Thus, complexity and integration, complementary

to each other and showing close interrelation, have become a principle in the present syllabus, While integration rather demonstrates the synthetic, manifold character of the material, complexity emphasizes its organization into unity. This emphasis on complexity and integration weakened the role of teaching mere events and the position of chronological teaching. The introduction of different spheres of social existence strengthened the structure-principled, cross-section--like treatment of the historical material. Thus, the syllabus, with its sound teaching methods emphasizes, in addition to the temporal alternation, the necessity to employ a horizontal approach as well.

Interpretation of the world historical approach in the syllabus

The teaching of history in grammar-school embraces, in addition to the history of our people, the history of the world as well and, within it the history of Europe and that of the neighbouring peoples. Consequently, it is necessary that by eliminating the Hungarian-centricity of grammar-school history teaching and by pushing the Europe-centricity into the background we should widen history to cover the world outside Europe. Our history teaching intends to go beyong the presentation of trends of classical development. Naturally, at the same time - in proportion to the possibilities - the recognition of the secondary development trends has strengthened.

The Central-East-European region has been given greater greater emphasis in the curriculum, emphasizing that specific national history should be seen in the context of historical relations between the Central-East-European peoples. All this strengthens the present-oriented nature of our history teaching since the students should also get acquainted with processes of today proceeding in the third world, in the developing countries. In conforming to the demand for

essential completeness and at the same time bearing in mind education realities, this meant that during the chronological teaching of history we surveyed the world by the eras in its structural entirety.

Syllabus requirements and detailed requirement systems

The requirements include knowledge that the pupils should acquire the skills and proficiencies necessary for this and all the emotion motivation and attitudes essential in understanding the material. The syllabus contains requirements grouped in definite sections and showing definite connections. The syllabus requirements show what should be achieved by the end of the schoolyear, fixing the final results. The role of the requirements, however, is not limited merely to the establishment of the final result. It has a significant role in the direction of the process of education and instruction as well.

In the interest of developing history teaching, in addition to the curriculum, the detailed requirement systems, as auxiliary materials for the teachers, were also born. Their function is to regulate the cognitive process as well by explaining and making precise the syllabus requirements, and helping teachers to select and utilize the most suitable teaching procedures and methods.

In the past years, with the study of comprehensive experiments - and that of foreign specialist literature - two types of detailed requirement systems have been formulated.

The first type of detailed requirement system is illustrated by Chart 3.

Chart 3

e.g. Hungary in the epoch of ripened feudalism

1. General objectives:
   The students should recognize the difference between aggressive and patriotic wars.

   The students should recognize the collectivity of the struggles of the peoples of the Balkans and of the Hungarian people in the wars against the Turk.

2. Specific objectives:

   The students should explain the causes of the defeat of Mohács and its effects.

   The students should compare the main trends of West-European and Hungarian development.

3. Knowledge:

Facts	The anarchy and suppression of the peasant insurrection resulted in a serious social crisis, Hungary before Mohács	
Notions	New notions	Notions to broaden
	peasants bound to the soil national independence	anarchy international situation
Connections	The reasons for the collapse of the independent Hungarian state; the economic, social, political situation at home and abroad.	

Operations	
Comprehension	The economic and social situation after the suppression of Dózsa's peasant insurrection. The international situation.
Recognition	The phenomenon of the social crisis, the consequences of social crises.
Utilization	The theory of the social class. The judgement of Turkish expansion.

The chart calls the attention to the duplication or rather to the double construction of the category. Before each thematic unit, according to the specific nature of the topic, the educational objectives and tasks are formulated as part of the general objectives and tasks of history teaching. As a result of that duplication, the objective gains significance and of the tasks make the teacher's activity more concrete and the student's performance more directly comparable and rateable. Consequently, while the syllabus requirement determines general relationships, the detailed requirement system determines a hierarchy of aims. The curriculum differentiates betwwwn what should be "understood" and what should be "known". Beyond the two categories mentioned, the detailed requirement system further details the requirement levels in the cognitive sphere, such as comprehension, recognition and utilization. It determines the affective sphere in the categories of utilization, seemingly in an implicit way.

This form detailed requirement system permits us to make the categories of general education and teaching, hardly mentioned explicitely in the curricula, more concrete during the teaching.

The other type of detailed requirement system is illustrated by Chart 4.

Chart 4

1. Requirements, general interrelations determined in the curriculum by grades.

2. Notions of the general school requirements to be broadened during the grammar-school studies.

2.1 Notions concerning economic life.

2.2 Notions concerning the life of a society and class struggle.

2.3 Notions concerning the state and the state organization.

2.4 Notions concerning the intellectual life of a society.

2.5 Notions concerning the historical cognition.

3. Requirements by thematic topics.

3.1 Notions concerning ideological, moral and political education.

3.2 Requirements concerning the forming of the ability of orientation in historical time and space.

4. Test collections for the development of the students' cognitive and elaboration abilities.

4.1 Historical reading book and other published sources.

4.2 Tasks concerning pictorial sources.

4.3 Tasks concerning maps.

4.4 Tasks concerning scientific elaborations.

4.5 Tasks concerning encyclopaedia and handbooks.

In items 1 to 3, this detailed requirement system type systematizes the requirements concerning knowledge, while item 4 helps the teachers to plan activities developing abilities and skills. That form of detailed requirement system shows the objectives and tasks less than the former one. By determining the knowledge circles in each thematic unit and by emphasizing their character it increased the methodical freedom and, at the same time, it helped the planning of differentiated activities with students.

THE ARRANGEMENT AND DIFFERENTIATION OF THE SUBJECT-MATTER IN GRAMMAR-SCHOOL HISTORY TEACHING

Grammar-school history teaching rests on the logic of the development of social forms. That appears primarily in the arrangement of the subject-matter where it presented a basis for the determination of the limits of periods to be taught in the individual grades and in the determination of the range, quantity and depth of the material to be taught. Thus, we teach about primitive communal societies, riverine cultures, the slave-holder socio-economic formations /Greece, Rome/ as well as the era of the early feudalism in the first grade, that of feudalism in the second grade, that of the capitalism /monopoly capitalism/ in the third grade, and that of socialism in the fourth grade.

Our history teaching based on these periods is not merely a structurizing factor, but the basis of our perception of history. Consequently, the social forms, not only provides us with a general structure and ideological definitions, but unites in our history teaching the phenomena and the processes reviving the often rather abstract information contained in the basic teaching material and they jointly help the pupils gain a picture of a particular period.

HISTORY SCHOOLBOOKS FOR THE GRAMMAR-SCHOOLS

After the appearance of the syllabus, the schoolbooks were published. Their authors often are practicing history teachers and specialists in historical science.[4/] During the writing of the textbooks numerous demands had to be taken into consideration. Fig. 1 shows well that, while the characteristics of the age-group and, in general, the capacity of the human mind set limits on the teaching material, the new requirements /e.g. independent learning, the forming of the ability for self-formation/ or the change /in many cases also the widening/ of the content of culture exert an influence, however, in the direction of growth, of increase in the students capacity and burden.

Fig. 1

The history textbooks tried to accommodate to the changed requirements by loosening the textual image, by differentiating the texts. The differentiation of the teaching material /basic and supplementary/ allowed a moderate extension of information or the transfer of knowledge, increased in certain sense, into the supplementary teaching material. On the other hand, the tasks connecting with source selection, sources, figures, maps, illustrations, encourage independent thinking and activization. We use two types of schoolbooks in the grammar-school, both types are identical, however, as far as their fundamental principles are concerned. The difference appears primarily in the arrangement of material. The two types are illustrated by Fig. 1 and Fig. 2.

Fig. 1 Fig. 2

In the first type of textbooks for the 1st and 2nd grades the text is written in one column. The texts, figures and sources are inserted into the basic text. In the other type, we arranged the supplementary texts in two neighbouring columns /schoolbooks for the 3rd and 4th grades/. In the latter case, the width of the columns is different. The basic text written with normal size letters has been put in the wider column.

The supplementary material, the explanations reinforcing the train of thought of the basic text and the examples illustrating historical phenomena can also be found in the wider slip. The second column even differs typographically. It contains the majority of source materials that can be used during the lessons. The authors of those two column textbooks tried to place the documents of the period in the immediate vicinity of the basic text. The two textbooks types differ from each other in size as well.

In order to ensure that these supplementary texts and illustrations do not remain merely a visually harmonized composition but are built into an organic unity during the work done individually or in groups, we placed a fairly rich, artistically varied series of tasks in both textbook types. One type of task is the repeating or reminding question. Placed in a suitable context, it mobilizes the students to revise what they learned earlier. The other type of the tasks makes the students analyze the figures, source selections, illustrations, maps and do logical operations /comparison, conclusion, systematization, creation of definitions, etc./. Some of the questions help the rethinking and deepening of the lesson at home. Both types of textbooks deal in continuously numbered lesson units with the syllabus and with the elements of the supplementary teaching material. Our schoolbooks are not working schoolbooks but schoolbooks of an activizing character.

Footnotes

1/ Referring merely to the most characteristic standpoints and concepts: Ferenc Pataki: Historical, social and political education. Hungarian Science, 1975, No.3. pp. 151--157.; Historic, social and political education = Standpoints and recommendations of the Hungarian Academy of Sciences concerning the nature of education in the long term and suggestions for the improvement of educational activity in the school. Budapest, 1976, pp. 183-265.; Iván T. Berend: Educational Ideals and History. Educational Image around the Year 2000. Editor: Rózsa Rét. Kossuth Publishing Company, Budapest, 1980. pp. 137-153. Integrated History Teaching. Editor: Györgyné Belázs. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publishing Company/, Budapest, 1980.

2/ Iván T. Berend: Five lectures on Economy and Education. Magvető Publishing Company, Budapest, 1978.

3/ The Plan of the Grammar-school Instruction and Education. Chief editor: Dr. Ottó Szabolcs. History. Editor: Zsuzsa Palus. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publisher Company/, Budapest, 1978. The complete literature of the modernization of history teaching can be found in: The annotated bibliography of the modernization of history teaching. Compiled by Dr. István Horányi, published in German and Russian. National Pedagogical Institute, Budapest, 1984. Repertory of the methodological monthly entitled History teaching: Repertory of the monthly entitled History teaching. 1955-1981. Compiled by Dr. István Horányi. National Pedagogical Institute, Budapest, 1984.

4/ Gábor Gyapay - Zsigmond Bitoók: History for the 1st grade of the grammar-school. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publishing Company/, Budapest, 1979.; Dr. Géza Eperjessy: History for the 2nd grade of the grammar-school. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publishing Company/, Budapest, 1980.;

Géza Závodszky: History for the 3rd grade of the grammar-school. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publishing Company/, Budapest, 1981.; Ágota Szirtes Jóvérné: History for the 4th grade of the grammar-school. Tankönyvkiadó /Schoolbook Publishing Company/, Budapest, 1982.

Ervin Vladár

ABOUT THE CURRICULUM OF THE FACULTATIVE EDUCATION OF HISTORY IN GRAMMAR-SCHOOL

In the wake of the party decision of 1972 determining the directions of the development of public education the elaboration of the facultative education system had started in the grammar-school.

The facultation having had no precedent in the Hungarian public education before introduced, in addition to the "compulsory subjects", the "facultative subjects" as well. In the 3rd and 4th grades of the grammar-school, the facultation makes the learning of a facultative subject possible, 7 or 9 lessons a week respectively, within the framework of compulsory lessons. At present, students can make a choice of 57 subjects /16 practical subjects, about 10 to 12 theoretical subjects mixed with practices and about 28 to 30 theoretical subjects/. The unprecedentedness required a fairly conscientious planning work and a long series of experiments. The final organizational and financial frameworks had evolved by about 1978 and, as a result of the educational experiments having been done for years, by the end of 1978 experimental curricula had been prepared that were under testing in 27 classes of 10 schools through two years. The testing added many experience and gave significant help to the shaping of the final version of the curricula. The discussions held in the professional panels of counties, towns and schools, as well as the professional remarks done by the representatives of the specialized branch of science greatly contributed to the shaping of the curricula.

It is well known that, originally, three variations of curriculum had been prepared for the purpose of the facultative equivalent of the so-called basic curriculum learnt compulsorily by everyone, the second one thrusted the dealing

with the economic and social history into prominence, while in the subject-matter of instruction of the third one, the social and cultural history was given an accent. The curricular requirements were similar in all the three curricula, the requirements, at the same time, were approached in way of the elaboration of different material of knowledge by each curricula. In autumn of the 1981/1982 schoolyear, only the first variation of the three curricula had been introduced. In case of the other two, the experience of the testing and the remarks from the part of the representatives of the specialized branch of science warned that further forming and developing of those curricula were needed. The subject introduced "passed the examination" well also during the testing, the experience confirmed the rightness of the curricula concept, they required, at the same time, the refinement and correction of certain details.

Within the framework of obligatorily facultative lessons, 2 and 3 lessons are at disposal in the 3rd and 4th grades respectively for the elaboration of material of the facultative history curriculum. The curriculum can also be learnt in the so-called "free zone", likewise in the 3rd and 4th grades, in 2 lessons a week. In the latter case, the framework of lessons at disposal decreases by 20 percent. The measure of the decrease - as proven by the experience of the testing - does not impede the elaboration of the subject-matter of instruction and the fulfilment of the requirements. As far as the question of what way of elaboration could prove to be expedient in the narrower framework of lessons is concerned, the Guide-book prepared for that purpose gives orientation.

The facultative education in the grammar-school offers the students the possibility of a profound study, as early as in the secondary school, of the specialized branch of science to be chosen in the higher education, so that their specialized scientific approach should be established, their cognitive abilities be put on a higher level, and their res-

pective personality be efficiently formed by means of the widening of their knowledge. The purpose of the facultative education also is to make the students "more fitted" to the successful taking of the entrance examination for universities or colleges and especially to the resultful continuation of their higher studies.

In the facultative education, history is chosen - as the experiments showed - by well-motivated talented students showing interest in the subject and ordinarily rising above the others in the learning of history. The composition of the groups organized that way, as well as the fact that the work is done in groups smaller in number, multiplies the teacher's possibilities from the point of view of dealing differentiatedly with students. The conditions seem to be favourable for the facultative teaching of history to accomplish its task: to enlarge, deepen and complete the history knowledge of students.

In the facultative education, by "knowledge" we not only - and primarily do not - mean attainments but the abilities, skills and proficiencies of students necessary for getting acquainted with history. That is the reason why a relatively small number of attainments can be found in the chapter entitled "Subject-matter of instruction" of the curriculum, instead, it rather induces seeing the existing attainments in new inherency and another kind of structuralization. The attainments with which it enlarges the subject-matter of instruction give the material necessary primarily for the development and improvement of the cognitive skills concerning the history; they amplify and make the attainments of the basic curriculum more complete from that point of view. The cognitive activity, the elaboration, indication, analyzation and evaluation works stand in the center of the curriculum. In the allocation of the curricular subject-matter of instruction, that fact is shown by the presence of unusual elements, e.g. such as "The economical structure and production data of the Tsarist Russia on the Eve of World War I.

Economic situation after the World War, after the revolution, after the civil war, with statistical data, conversion of the statistical data. Introduction into the economic history." /The introductory chapter of the part entitled "The victory and the building of socialism in the Soviet Union" of the curriculum./ Thus, the curriculum prescribes, in its chapter enumerating the subject-matter of instruction, forms of activities as well, pointing out that the given activity and operation are to be learnt, just as the cognitive attainments.

The curriculum is of framework character. It contains 6 thematic units in both respective grades. The elaboration of only one of those 12 thematic units is compulsory. At present, that is the first thematic unit of the 3rd grade /Introduction, subject, sources and methods of the historical science/ which serves as a prospedeuticum for the profound study of history. The National Pedagogical Institute gives a separate auxiliary material to the teaching of that introductory part. As far as the other thematic subjects are concerned, the curriculum recommends the elaboration of 2 to 4 of them a year, on the basis of the specialized teacher's free choice. Naturally, the teacher's freedom is limited, in that case too, by the recognition of the necessity: not only the one we know well and we like must be taught, although our choice is inspired by that point of view as well. The choice should correspond to the needs of the student's group: the consideration of the students' historical knowledge, the development stage of their cognitive skills, the direction of their further studies, the character of their interest, and many other factors play a primary role in the selection. It must be taken care of that the separate thematic units and the greater domains of knowledge taken out of them should form a coherent unity and a material of knowledge structured on the basis of reasoned points of view, and that this material of knowledge should also make possible the fulfilment of the tasks arising from the development of the cognitive activity.

In the 3rd grade, the first thematic unit of the curriculum is the above-mentioned introductory part. The curriculum recommends 16 lessons for the elaboration of that unit of the subject-matter of instruction. According to the experience of the experimental testing, that theme domain can be elaborated in 15 to 20 lessons. According to the opinion of the colleagues having participated in the testing, mainly two useful ways of the teaching of that part present themselves: according to the first one, the theme can be elaborated uninterruptedly in the 3rd grade, at the beginning of the schoolyear. According to the second concept, some parts of the thematic unit are practical to be elaborated during the 2 years of the facultative education, when the group arrives at the part of the subject-matter of instruction closely connected to a given element of the introductory chapter. Both concepts may lead to result.

The periodization of the subject-matter of instruction of the facultative curriculum corresponds to the periodization of the basic curriculum, the facultative subject-matter of instruction and the subject-matter of instruction of the basic curriculum are elaborated by and large simultaneously. The different concepts of the arrangement of the subject-matter of instruction do not make, however, the full synchronism possible, a slight delay is needed in a "desirable" degree, compared to the basic curriculum. In the 3rd grade, 3 units of the facultative curriculum /The times of bourgeois revolutions/ deals jointly with the world and Hungarian history of the epoch. The basic curriculum, however, deals first with the world history chapter and then with the Hungarian part, in 20 and 18 lessons respectively. For getting acquainted with both the world and the Hungarian historical attainments of the basic curriculum, the students need approximately 25 lessons. After their passing, the elaboration of the material of both the basic and the facultative curricula may take place by and large parallelly. That "arrear" is created by the elaboration of the introductory

chapter. The establishment of the "necessary asynchronism" can be solved, however, according to the other concept as well: the students should elaborate the 2nd thematic unit /Feudalism and absolutism/ of the 3rd grade subject-matter of instruction that roughly is the summary of the elements connecting the 2nd grade subject-matter of instruction and the 3rd grade attainment domains.

In the curriculum of the facultative education, the curricular requirements play the same role as in the so-called basic curricula: they determine the kinds of attainments and the special cognitive skills that the student should acquire by the end of the schoolyear, as well as their level and depth. The requirements also designate the direction of the formation of the student's historical approach, and the connected attainments and skills. The requirements, at the same time, represent the basis of the evaluation of the student's knowledge as well. The requirements have their own functions also in the facultative history curriculum, slightly differing from those of the basic curricula, concerning mainly the level of skills. As it becomes clear by having read through the curriculum, the requirements are the same both in the 3rd and 4th grades. Compared to the requirements of the basic curriculum, another difference also is apparent: the requirements prescribe, with almost no exception, the student's proficiency in some work form of the historical cognition.

The first difference - namely that the requirements are the same in both grades - follows from the framework nature of the curriculum. That kind of formulation of the requirements has a special significance in the facultative education. Within the framework of the facultative education, history is taught for students' groups smaller in number than in the education compulsory to everyone. The smaller group makes possible to take into account, to a greater extent, a given student's development level, knowledge short-

comings, interest, career destination - and the other influencing factors -, and to give the students tasks serving the best their respective development. It also is natural that the improvement of the cognitive skills yields more results in case of a given student and less in that of another, since their respective abilities, motivations, etc., are different. In the facultative education, there is a possibility to give teacher guidance for the development of each student, the outstandingly talented, the less talented, the less interested and the ones having chosen the history facultation under pressure likewise. Thus, the level of the requirements to be complied with moves on a rather large scale: it is left at the teacher's discretion how far the students or given students are got in the domain of the development of the cognitive skills concerning history.

It also must be taken into account that identical requirements cannot be raised in each grammar-school. If the settlement in which the school resides disposes of a library, a museum, an archive, the teacher has a lot more possibilities for making the education richer and more colorful than in the case those institutions are absent. The possibilities of the schools are, however, different also as far as the schooling of students is concerned since there are grammar-schools that are obliged to admit poorly pre-educated students as well, while other schools, as a result of the over-application, have the opportunity to select the best ones. Although those differences diminish by the time of the beginning of the facultation that is the 3rd grade, some difference between students of schools with favourable and unfavourable potentialities may arise. All this has an impact on the level to which the students can be got in a given domain.

The other difference unanimously refers to the fact that the purpose of the facultative history teaching, as we mentioned earlier, is primarily not to give knowledge, to widen the actual knowledge, but the improvement of the students' cognitive skills concerning history, on the necessary amount of surplus material of knowledge.

The content of the chapter entitled "Methods" of the curriculum is directly connected with the above. That chapter - after outlining the principles of the practical selection of the subject-matter of instruction - gives emphasis to the systematic activization of the students, based on developing tasks. That activization extends to numerous domains: to the elaboration of primary and not primary sources such as the work with chrestomathies, written sources, charters, statistics, diagrams, maps, pictorial representations, films, relevision, belles-letters, contemporary press articles, etc., the elaboration of the possibilities offered by museum pieces, architectural relics, ruins, or the evolvement and interpretation of the informations transmitted by the school's historical demonstrative aids, and the creation of conclusions. It is during this work that the switch-over of our students from the "external guidance", from the direction by the teacher, to the more and more effective "internal guidance", to the independent student work should be established and made more effective. The kind of elaboration of the subject-matter of instruction in which the students themselves are active and work to the greatest possible extent and as independently as possible should become the everyday work form of the facultative history education. Those work forms must not be limited merely to the comprehension, interpretation and evaluation of media of information, sources, etc. and to the drawing of conclusions. It is necessary to make a further step also towards the adequate conveyance of the results of the elaboration: not only - and not primarily - in the direction of the improvement of the answers, but in the direction of the preparation of reports, the effective participation in the collective evaluation of the elaborated informations, the active and correct evolvement of the polemic skill, preparation of written reports and compositions, briefly: in the direction of the improvement of the communication skills concerning the specialized subject. Consequently, as far as

the teaching methods are concerned, the evolvement of those activity forms are also given an accent that belong to the domain of the transmission of the knowledge and of the presentation of the attainments.

For the facultative history education only written workhelps are prepared: chrestomathies for the 3rd and 4th grades, notes for the teachers for the elaboration of the introductory part contained in the first part of the 3rd grade subject-matter of instruction, and a subject guide, also for the teachers. For the time being, other educational material is not being prepared. Nevertheless, the educational materials prepared and being prepared for the elaboration of the basic curricula, mainly the 16 volumes of the compiled source selections, can be made good use of. The number of the audiovisual appliances also is fairly high, so high that the systematic use of all of them is not even possible. Thus, the possibility for the choice is given: an arrangement can be prepared from the available maps, float series, diapositive series, tapes, films, etc., that serves the education excellently.